

The Nation.

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The Week.

We expressed the opinion the other day that Mr. McKinley would concur in the obvious suggestion of President Schurman's interview at San Francisco, that we ought to retain the Philippines because of our future interest in the trade of China. Now Mr. H. L. Nelson, the editor of *Harper's Weekly*, tells us that this is exactly the kind of gray matter that the President's brain is depositing at Bluff Point. He thinks, says Mr. Nelson, that, if we should abandon the Philippines, we should be an object of derision to Europe, and that the Orientals would consider us of no account; that the trade of the Philippines is a small matter in itself, but that that of China is something to be struggled for, and that the Philippines furnish an excellent foothold for such a contest. This is not put in the form of an interview with the President, but as an inference from his daily walk and conversation. Of course it must be taken as an incomplete version of what is passing in the President's mind. Yet it is fitting to inquire what this conception involves and implies. It implies, first, that as many people, Filipinos and Americans, must be killed as may be necessary to give us a footing for the "struggle" in China. Trade with China we can carry on better from our Pacific Coast direct than by any round-about route; but if we must struggle, i. e., fight, for trade, then we want the Philippines for a *pou sto.* So we are to fight the Filipinos first in order to gain an advantageous position for fighting Russia, or some other Power or Powers that have effected a lodgment on Chinese soil, which they may use to the detriment of our trade. This is a fair interpretation of the droppings recorded by the editor of *Harper's Weekly*, mixed up as they are with some edifying reflections on the goodness of our intentions towards the Filipinos and the ultimate benefits we shall confer upon them.

One great trouble with all of Mr. McKinley's deliverances about the war is that he tries to unite in his own person the contradictory characters of the swashbuckler and the missionary. He has to wave the flag and threaten death and destruction to all who "assail" it, but in the same breath he has to express a tender concern for the souls of the men he is about to kill. This makes him a sort of "Fighting Bob" with a psalm-singing attachment. The result is some highly ludicrous juxtapositions of

language. One such occurred in the President's message to Congress last December, when he was describing the glorious sea-fight at Santiago. As a kind of climax he burst out with the words, "The Spanish loss was deplorably large." Why "deplorably"? Were we not there to kill all of them we could, and the more the merrier? What Mr. McKinley's narrative and the tone of it required him to write was "magnificently large," "inspiringly large"—but no, the chance to roll his eyes and do a little canting was too good to be lost, and so he ended his war pæan with a snuffe and wrote "deplorably."

There was a similar impression of a monk on the warpath given by the President's remarks at the Catholic Summer School at Plattsburg, on Tuesday of last week. At one moment he talked like Emperor William, threatening to dash to pieces all who opposed him. The next he was a very Saint Columba in his yearning over those who withstood him. He would begin a sentence in the spirit of Napoleon (who, as the Abbé de Pradt said, regarded men only as projectiles to be hurled against his enemies), and would end it with a sentence worthy of Wilberforce. At the very instant when he seemed to have worked himself up to the point of ripping out an oath, he blessed instead. "Rebellion may delay," he declared in a terrible voice, "but it can never defeat"—what? Our formidable armies? The irresistible march of our banners? No; only our "blessed mission of liberty and humanity"! Surely, there never was such a dying fall into twaddle.

How completely "we have changed all that" appears in the news from the island of Sulu. Gen. Bates is negotiating a "treaty" with the Sultan. This is a new business for the United States—to make a "treaty" with one of its own subjects. But the fact of the treaty is not as startling as its contents. It proposes to leave a Mohammedan despot in absolute control of territory belonging to the United States. Not even moral or religious interference is to be allowed, as one article of the treaty specifically bars out missionaries. Slaveholding is to be continued, though the Sultan agrees; as a concession to silly American prejudices, to allow slaves, when able, to buy their freedom. The only hitch is over the question what flag the Sultan shall fly when on his journeys. He wants his own; at last accounts, Gen. Bates was still urging him to adopt the American. We hope there will be no yielding on this point. The idea of having any other flag than the star-spangled banner floating over

the Sultan's harem and slaves must surely be quite intolerable to McKinley.

President Schurman, upon reaching his Ithaca home on his return from the Philippines on Monday, expressed the opinion that what the Administration is doing in the Philippines is to "establish that sovereignty" which the United States assumed by virtue of the treaty of peace; that "the vital issue is the honor of the nation, the protection of loyal Filipinos, and the fulfilment of our obligations to the nations of the world involved in our acceptance of sovereignty"; and, finally, that "the means and agencies for the accomplishment of this end must be determined by the President." Dr. Schurman adds that the President understands the situation better than any one else can possibly do, and says that he has "no doubt the President will soon effect a solution of the Philippine problem which will be entirely satisfactory to the American people." In other words, the President of the Philippine Commission tells the country that it must trust everything to Mr. McKinley; that Congress has no part to play in the solution of this vast problem; and that discussion among the people is out of place, because "to his statesmanship and tried ability we may intrust the issue with perfect confidence." If Mr. Schurman has been correctly reported, the proposition to regard the President as an absolute dictator in a most important question of national policy has never before been expressed quite so clearly. Is the nation ready to accept such doctrine?

We shall not make haste to assert that the interview with Admiral Dewey, printed in Monday's *London News*, is authentic. Just because we like what he is reported to have said at Naples about the Philippine situation, we shall not assume that he really did say it, without confirmation. But we beg to point out that it is antecedently credible, because it is in line with what Dewey has before said and written concerning the Filipinos and the Philippine problem. The Admiral is now quoted as being fully convinced that the Filipinos are "capable of governing themselves"; that they "have all the qualifications for it"; and that "the only way to settle the insurrection and assure prosperity to the archipelago is to concede self-government to the inhabitants." Now this is really going no further than Dewey went in his letter to the Secretary of the Navy, dated Manila, August 29, 1898, in which he wrote:

"In a telegram to the Department on June 23, I expressed the opinion that 'these people are far superior in their intelligence and more capable of self-government than

the natives of Cuba, and I am familiar with both races.' Further intercourse with them has confirmed me in this opinion."

Admiral Dewey is said to have declared in the Naples interview: "I have never been in favor of violence towards the Filipinos." This is in full keeping with what he said to the Rev. Clay MacAuley last January: "Rather than make a war of conquest on this people, I would up anchor and sail out of the harbor."

So far, therefore, the interview is fully borne out by Dewey's known utterances. But now we come to a passage bearing on the actual situation and the actual duty of this country, which, if not repudiated—if adhered to and repeated—by the Admiral, will shatter Mr. McKinley's Philippine policy. It is this:

"The islands are at this moment blockaded by a fleet, and war reigns in the interior. *This abnormal state of things should cease.* . . . I should like to see violence at once put a stop to."

If Admiral Dewey said this, it would be, we maintain, only a logical development of the views he has publicly expressed. If the Filipinos are capable of self-government, then a war upon them to make them submit to our yoke is, indeed, an abnormal state of things which should at once cease. If we began to use violence through a criminal blunder, the sooner we admit our hideous mistake, the better all round. But it will be asserted that the Admiral could not have cast such an awful reproach upon McKinley, because it would be not only an indiscretion, but an act of insubordination. We remember, however, that the Santiago "round robin" was flagrant military insubordination; yet it was necessary in order to expose and correct the frightful mismanagement of the War Department, and undoubtedly saved the lives of thousands of soldiers. Gen. Miles was guilty of insubordination in publishing what he did about his superior officer, but he won popular sympathy thereby, and the Government did not dare to punish him. Now, it may be that Admiral Dewey has concluded that it is his duty, in defiance of military etiquette, to speak out in a similar way in order to expose official blundering, which has long since assumed the proportions of a crime.

The tone of the imperialist press shows clearly enough the growing unpopularity of the Administration's course in the Philippines. One newspaper which, only a few months ago, was insisting that everybody except a few fanatics and fools favored expansion, and was satisfied with the President's policy, now says that it "is strange beyond accounting that some overtone is not made to the Filipinos," declares that "the increasing American distaste for an inconclusive slugging match in the Philippines is apparent," and admits that there

is "a growing disrelish of the war, until and unless peace plans go hand in hand with it." Another of these organs, which used to ridicule the notion that the country was not enthusiastic for the war, now says that "many Republican Senators who have been in Washington have stated frankly that the sentiment throughout the country is changing, and that, while the feeling for expansion is still strong, it is being tempered by regret that the conquest of the Philippines is being accomplished at such a sacrifice of money and treasure." It is also admitted by the same newspaper that "the reports brought back to this country by the returning soldiers have had a dampening effect upon the public spirit." The San Francisco *News-Letter* summarizes the views of the Oregon volunteers who recently passed through that city on their return, in the statement that "to a man they declare that the Philippines are not worth the blood and treasure it will cost to conquer and govern them"; that "it is plain from the men's talk that they did their duty because their country had called upon them, but that they would not volunteer in a similar service again," and that "they say that our California boys feel just as they do, and that the same feeling, with more or less force, permeates all the volunteer regiments."

The officers chosen to be colonels and lieutenant-colonels of the ten new regiments reflect as much credit upon the Administration as did those put at the head of the first ten regiments now nearing completion. With one or two exceptions, they are men of unusual proved ability, many of whom, like Capt. John Bigelow, jr., distinguished themselves in the fighting about Santiago. This evidence of a desire to select the proper men for these positions, irrespective of politics, makes it all the harder to understand why the President should every now and then foist upon the service an officer utterly unfit to be in it, either by reason of bad character or because of his age. A case in point is that of Major Charles Newbold, recently appointed paymaster, at the age of sixty-two years. For many years a good, honest dairyman in Washington, as we learn from the *Army and Navy Register*, Major Newbold entered military life as a paymaster in the volunteers after the close of the war with Spain, and was duly transferred to the regular army, with the rank of Major, on the retirement of Paymaster-General Carey, a few weeks ago. In two years this fortunate man will be retired for age, with a pension of three-fourths of his present pay, \$2,500, for the remainder of his life, envied by a couple of hundred officers who, after thirty and even thirty-five years of arduous service in the line of the army, are still wearing a captain's shoulder-straps. We should like to hear, from any one quali-

fied to speak, some reason for this outrageous appointment. Is it that Newbold supplied milk to the White House, or must the dairymen be kept in line at Uncle Sam's expense?

Senator Tillman of South Carolina is not looked on as a particular friend of the colored race, but he seems to think that it is time to protest against the treatment which it is now receiving. With his usual violence of expression, not unjustified in this case, he denounced the conduct of a band of "whitecappers" who have been going about and whipping inoffensive negroes, calling those who took part in such outrages cowards. What is significant is that Senator Tillman based his condemnation of these proceedings on the condemnation which they were receiving from public opinion. "The Yankees," he said, "are watching us close, and the eyes of the whole world are now on the race problem in the South. They will take advantage of everything of this kind to abuse the South." Boston, he continued, "was the head and centre of all devilment"; this being especially manifested by the conduct of "that Jewett woman," who came down and rescued the family of the murdered negro postmaster. He warned his hearers that the better feeling which had begun to prevail between the sections would disappear unless the abuse of "poor ignorant black wretches" was stopped, and suggested that the representation of South Carolina in Congress might be cut down because of the new election laws. These laws were intended to disfranchise the negroes, and the claim was made that when this was done they would no longer be persecuted. This claim has not so far been justified by the event, and the condition of affairs is evidently extremely serious. The remarks of Senator Tillman were made at a mass-meeting called to denounce the whitecappers; the prosecuting attorney and the Sheriff both begging for the vindication of the law. A particularly ominous feature of this disturbance is the motive assigned for maltreating the negroes. They have been quiet and inoffensive recently, it is said, but some of the whites covet their lands, and are taking these means to get possession of them. Such mass-meetings as this are urgently called for in other parts of the South.

The exact legal situation created by the decision of the Court of Cassation in the Dreyfus case, and the instructions under which the present court-martial is proceeding, are not generally understood, we think. A careful reading of the full text of the decision shows that, like most judicial opinions, it is extremely cautious. In reality, it does not go beyond disannulling the former verdict

against Dreyfus, on the ground that it was irregularly obtained. It was the illegal submission of secret documents to the military tribunal, of which the accused was left in ignorance, which compelled the Court of Cassation to order a new trial. True, it did refer in the decision to the evidence used against Dreyfus, and did, in a way, discredit it. But it did not do so in any such fashion as to prevent the present court-martial from giving weight to the old testimony if it chooses to. Thus it simply said of the famous "canaille de D." letter that "at present it is considered inapplicable to the condemned man." This is very far from deciding, as some have inferred, that the letter could not be used against Dreyfus at all. So of the alleged confession to Capt. Lebrun-Renaud. The court only said that it was not possible to fix the precise language of it, on account of the discrepancies between witnesses. Even in regard to the bordereau, the court did not positively decide that Esterhazy wrote it, but stopped with citing various facts which "tend to prove" that it was not written by Dreyfus. The upshot is that, legally, the court-martial can do what it pleases with all this discredited evidence, and, provided its proceedings are regular, can find any verdict it chooses against Dreyfus without danger of fresh reversal by the Court of Cassation. This suggests the peril that a monstrous injustice may be repeated under the forms of law.

Col. Picquart is the real hero of the Dreyfus case, and his testimony is easily the most important yet given at the trial. It ought to be convincing, as against the mass of suspicion and hypothesis which is all that has been urged as proof of guilt. His bold bearing, his quick sense of personal honor, and his love of justice, leading him to risk reputation and life in behalf of a man whom he never knew, have marked him out for admiration from the first; and his appearance at Rennes has been in keeping with all that was known of him before. It is a terrible charge which he substantiates against Gen. Mercier, and one no less damning against Gen. Gonse. The former not only submitted documents in secret to the first court-martial, but used one which he positively knew did not refer to Dreyfus. And Gen. Gonse, when proof of the horrible injustice done was laid before him by Picquart, simply said, "If you say nothing, nobody will be the wiser."

Two witnesses in the Dreyfus case on Monday attempted to create prejudice against him by telling of his relations with women of a certain class. One of these witnesses went so far as to repeat private conversations on this subject. The trial has gone very wide of the

mark in many ways. Indeed, it has not been confined to the subject of the inquiry at any time, but has ranged through the whole earth and the things under the earth, yet the precincts of opéra bouffe were not actually invaded until Gribelin and Junck were called as witnesses and began to tell what they had observed or heard in relation to the *demi-monde*. If anything could bring about a reaction in favor of Dreyfus among French soldiers, it would be this travesty of decency and justice. Lord Russell, the Chief Justice of England, is quoted as saying that there had been no testimony in support of the charge against Dreyfus that would warrant an English magistrate in holding him for a regular trial. This must be the opinion of every American lawyer. The rules for the admissibility of evidence constitute the foundation of the whole structure of jurisprudence, and they are just as necessary, just as indispensable, in a military trial as in any other, because the principles of justice are not altered in the least by the fact that a man serves in the army. Tested by the rules of evidence, the case against Dreyfus has already vanished. Adverse evidence has resolved itself into the private opinion of half-a-dozen generals and ex-War Ministers that Dreyfus might have committed the act of treason, because he had access to the documents named in the bordereau, and, therefore, he must be the guilty man. "If he did not do it, who did?" exclaims Gen. Mercier in tones of triumph, as though the burden of proof were on Dreyfus and not on his accusers.

Why no representative of the Pope was allowed to take part in The Hague Conference is explained at length by M. Georges Goyau in the *Revue des Deux Mondes* for August 1. It was all the doing of Italy. The Czar earnestly desired the coöperation of Pope Léo, and copies of his original appeal for disarmament and of Count Muravieff's circular fixing the bases of discussion were especially sent to the Holy See; and the Pontiff's immediate and hearty approval of the whole movement was rightly thought to be of great influence in helping it on. Everybody looked for some official representing the Pope in the Conference, but Italy suddenly interposed a veto. Only territorial sovereigns were invited, she said, and she could not assent to the implication that the Pope had any such sovereignty. Russia persisted in pressing the desirability of having Papal representation, but the Italian Prime Minister finally said that if the Pope had a delegate at The Hague, the kingdom of Italy would not. He also drew Germany into the case, the German Government notifying the Russian that if any European Power withdrew from the Conference,

Germany would also withdraw. So it practically became a question of no Pope or no Conference. Thus it came about that the Pope, whose encyclical in 1894 in favor of arbitration and disarmament was an anticipation of the Czar's noble summons to the nations, was prevented from having any direct voice in the councils at The Hague. M. Goyau closes his account of the affair with the sententious remark: "So, while Italy scored a success, the Holy See and the nations scored an experience."

The condition of India, as described in the speech made by Lord George Hamilton in introducing his budget, is much better than has been supposed. The great famine was not the only disturbing element; plague, earthquake, and a frontier war have also contributed to the impoverishment of the country. Nevertheless, the deficit for the year 1897-'98, the last year for which the accounts have been closed, was little more than £3,000,000. The total cost of the famine to the Indian revenue was over £10,000,000, and the frontier war took a good deal more than £2,000,000. Concerning the famine and the general question of the poverty of the country, Lord G. Hamilton observed that there were two theories current. One school maintains that British rule is bleeding India to death, and that distress and famine are caused by overtaxation. The other school holds that famine has always prevailed periodically in India, depending on the rainfall, and that under British rule its effects have been steadily narrowed. As evidence in support of this theory, the recuperative power of the people is important. In March, 1898, immediately after the famine, the surplus revenue for the coming year was estimated at less than £600,000. It proved to be over £3,000,000, which is the largest surplus ever realized in India. These figures certainly show a remarkable recovery from the effects of the famine, but their effect is somewhat impaired by the fact that the expenditure for the year in question was considerably reduced by the appreciation of the rupee. The amount of bills of exchange remitted was so large as to enable the Indian Government to diminish its gold liabilities in England by £2,695,000, while it succeeded in exchanging rupees for gold to the amount of about £1,500,000. The receipts from railways and irrigation works were also the largest ever recorded in India, and there was an actual reduction of military expenditure. As to establishing the gold standard, Lord G. Hamilton emphatically declared that he never would have considered it had he not satisfied himself that the establishment of such a standard would be one of the most effective instruments for improving the industrial condition of the lowest paid of the wage-earners of India.

WHY WE CANNOT CONQUER THE FILIPINOS.

The problem of Philippine conquest is not a military one. This country undoubtedly has the physical force to make the islands a desolation and call it peace. We can harry their coasts. We can ravage their fields. We can drive their fleeing inhabitants to mountain fastnesses, and dash their little ones against a stone. If it is a mere question of brute strength—of money and men and ships and guns—we can employ it without limit. We can kill and burn and destroy like Avengers of God. No one doubts that. Mr. McKinley, in boasting of the new forces he has got together for bending the Filipinos to his will, is only glorying as a full-grown man might in his ability to break every bone in the body of the street waif. The disparity is too glaring. If we exert our giant's strength to crush the Filipinos, we can undoubtedly do it. But what we assert is that it is not a question of mere *force majeure*. There are moral obstacles in our path more terrible than an army with banners. If we wage a war of extermination against the Filipinos, they will have invisible allies mightier than all the battalions that tread the earth; so that they that be with them are more than they that be with us, and we can never conquer them.

We cannot conquer the Filipinos because we cannot, as a nation, place ourselves in a pillory to become the hissing of mankind; cannot justify the bitter taunt of the Spaniard that our pretended unselfishness and humanity were but thinly veiled greed and cruelty; cannot give fresh edge to the sneers of Germans at our vaunted purpose to set a captive race free, and to the cynicism of Frenchmen at the expense of our mission of justice and liberty; cannot make our best friends in England hang their heads in shame; cannot put it in the power of the civilized world to say that our generous professions were a hollow mockery and our plighted faith no better than a harlot's vow.

We cannot conquer the Filipinos because we cannot march over the dead bodies of our national leaders and prophets and heroes; cannot look into the grave and troubled face of Washington bidding us remember that "the basis of our political system" is the right of a people to make its own government, and urging us to exhibit to the world the "too novel example of a people always guided by an exalted justice and benevolence"; cannot, in Lincoln's presence, "ask a just God's assistance" in the effort to "bestride the necks of a people because they will be better off for being ridden"; cannot, with McKinley leading us, do what he said would be an act of "criminal aggression"; cannot welcome and applaud Dewey while going in the teeth of his saying, "Rather than make a war of conquest of this

people, I would up anchor and sail out of the harbor."

We cannot conquer the Filipinos because we cannot use any of our historic battle-cries in the fight against them; cannot allow our soldiers to give one countersign of liberty, while pursuing them; cannot arm our officers and men with the triple armor of a just cause; cannot nerve our troops with a hatred of the enemy nearly as intense as their hatred of the cruel and repellent work they are set to do; cannot look upon a victory except with shame that it is won over a foe so unworthy of our steel; cannot ask a beaten army to surrender and trust to our good faith, lest the taunt be thrown in our face, as it was in President Schurman's by a Filipino envoy, that American good faith is not a thing to be considered seriously.

We cannot conquer the Filipinos because the country and Congress will not give the President the money necessary to pursue his ruthless work; because an outraged public sentiment will demand that he quit doing what we went to war with Spain to stop her doing; because burdened taxpayers will protest against being made to pay for shot and shell to do the work which wise statesmanship should be able to do without the firing of a gun; because we are too great a nation to trample on the weak, too free a people to permit chains to be riveted on another race by our agents and in our name, and too jealous a republican commonwealth to see our blood and treasure poured out in distant lands for the benefit of a favored few.

And if, in spite of all, the war of conquest and extermination is pushed to its bloody end; if the last Filipino town goes up in smoke and flame; if the last armed native is brought to bay in swamp or pass, and falls under our volleys; if it is not the Filipinos who will be conquered; they, even as they die before the pitiless hail of our bullets, may well exclaim: "Americans, you have not conquered us, you have conquered yourselves; in our ruin you have pulled down the pillars of your own temple of liberty; in beating us down you have trampled upon your own history and principles; in destroying our republic you have destroyed your own."

RESULTS OF POLITICAL COURAGE.

One of the reproaches brought against those citizens who refuse to obey the orders of party leaders without criticism or discussion, is that their energy is wasted. "Why do you throw away your ballot and your influence," the independent voter is asked, "by deserting your own party? You cannot join the other party, for you do not believe in its principles, and if you hope to accomplish anything, your only chance is to stay where you belong, and take the bad and the good together." This appeal is probably in

most cases sufficient to overcome the disposition to revolt. Men hate to be called bad names. They dislike to break off friendly relations with their old companions, and above all they dread the reputation of being visionary and impractical. They find it on the whole easier to turn a deaf ear to the voice of conscience than to that of the party organization, and they justify themselves with the reflection that, after all, they could accomplish nothing if they did take an independent course.

Yet the fallacy of this appeal is constantly exposed. Every one admits that the conduct of party leaders may become so bad that they have to be displaced. No one denies that unscrupulous politicians may favor measures so contrary to party traditions and principles as to require repudiation. The question, therefore, concerning party policy is always open. Conditions are incessantly changing, and the course of party action must be determined by human volition. This being so, it is absurd to assume that the individuals who happen at any time to be in office, or to be in control of the nominating machinery, must have the absolute power of deciding on the policy of their party. To a certain degree they must have this power. The immediate demands of administration have to be met. But beyond that point administrative officers have no right to go. The intelligent members of the party must be consulted. If they are to be consulted, they have a right to give their opinions, and if the matter is a vital one, to insist on them. That is a condition of the healthy growth of parties. The party must advocate new measures all the time, and if the new measures are dictated by the managers and not by the thinking members of the party, it will very soon decay. We have had many examples of this in American history, and they afford ample proof that energy is not wasted by independent political action.

This truth was very well brought out by Mr. H. C. Parsons, a member of the Senate of Massachusetts, at the recent Ashfield anniversary. He reviewed the political course of George William Curtis, and pointed out that while he had been called the "ideal independent," he was properly the ideal party man. When his career is reviewed, we are struck with his activity in what we speak of as "politics." He attended all the caucuses, served on committees, was a delegate to conventions, presided at political meetings. He was chairman of his county committee and Presidential elector. He accepted some nominations for office, and might have had others if he had wished to bargain for them. He urged on college students "that participation in the details of politics without which, upon the part of the most intelligent citizens, the conduct of public affairs falls under the control of selfish and

ignorant or crafty and venal men." In all this, Mr. Curtis preserved his independence, and under his guidance and that of such men as he, the Republican party was enthusiastically supported by the best citizens. It was successful because of the courage which its intelligent members displayed in asserting their right to hold the party managers to their principles.

Hence, it involved no change in his theory of party government for him to oppose the Republican managers when they lowered the party standards. We need not dwell on the results of his action, because they are current history. But what the rising generation of educated voters needs seriously to consider is the practical results of such political courage as Mr. Curtis displayed, and as is now displayed by such good Republicans as Senator Hoar and Mr. Parsons. Young men are told that such opposition is blind and hopeless; that the anti-imperialists are fighting as those that beat the air. But every day's tidings prove the falsity of this view. It is not a question of creating a party; it is a question of influencing the managers of the existing parties. That these managers have been influenced by the courageous attitude of the anti-imperialists is easily demonstrated.

The aim of these citizens may be defined roughly as the preservation of government by the people, and the ideals of human equality and freedom. To hold distant peoples in subjection by right of conquest, as the Republican managers proposed, was inconsistent with that aim, and hence the independent element was thrown into opposition. But the Democratic party organization, owing to its expulsion of its independent element, was in no condition to attract Republican voters. Moreover, the managers of that organization were by no means sincerely hostile to an imperial policy. They thought it might be popular, and they cared little for consistency. The situation was extremely discouraging for the independents. They were too few to count, and both parties were against them. It was a time for the faint-hearted to draw back and to submit to what seemed inevitable. Fortunately there were enough courageous men to sustain the cause, and they may now contemplate the results of their action with good cheer.

One of these results is that they have furnished the Democratic party with a policy. From half applauding the subjugation of the Filipinos, the leaders have gradually veered around until they are ready to denounce it. Mr. Richard Croker's personal convictions about free government and human liberty are, perhaps, not very clear, but he is in position to judge of what is popular, and he has changed his tone about expansion. He thought it was assured, but he now thinks differently. Mr. Bryan was some-

what obscure in his first utterances, but he has grown more and more explicit. Appearances indicate that the Democratic party will adopt substantially the platform of the anti-Imperialists, so far at least as the continuance of a war of conquest is concerned. To have made this a political issue when the policy of subjugation seemed at one time to be universally accepted, is a great victory. It may be fairly attributed to the political courage of a comparatively few independent and patriotic citizens contending against great disadvantages.

Nor is this all. It is not only the Democratic leaders that have been aroused, but the Republican managers also. Signs are multiplying that they are alarmed. They are becoming more and more apologetic, the more the real issue is explained to the people. They are perhaps too far committed to their policy to change it openly; but they will probably be led to modify it. They assert that the war will soon be over, and they hope, no doubt, to overwhelm armed opposition. But if they find that they cannot conquer within six months, they will probably resort to diplomacy. Eventually, therefore, the principle of the consent of the governed may secure recognition, and that is the chief principle involved. If we review the whole situation, the "ideal party man" seems to have accomplished much. He has not thrown away his influence, which those who thought he must submit to fate have done. On the contrary, he has exerted it so successfully that future ages may hold that it turned the scales of destiny, and that those who were not frightened at being called traitors, have made themselves an enduring name as patriots.

THE IOWA DEMOCRACY.

The Democratic State Convention in Iowa last week was a political gathering of unusual significance. The party managers have nowhere in the West been more insistent upon keeping the silver issue to the front than in that State. In the State convention of 1897 a platform was adopted which gave first place to the financial question, laid "special emphasis" upon that portion of the Chicago platform bearing on this question, and specifically reasserted the demand for free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1. Again, in 1898, the party put the same issue to the front, declared that the utterances of the Chicago platform concerning finance "explicitly define our faith on the money question," and held free coinage at the ratio of 16 to 1 "indispensable to the financial, industrial, and political independence of our people."

In sharp contrast with this attitude of the Iowa Democracy in 1897 and 1898 is the position which they take in 1899. The platform adopted at Des Moines be-

gins with an unequivocal and unreserved endorsement of the Chicago platform. "In whole and in detail," but it does not "lay special emphasis" upon the financial portion of it, and so far from holding free coinage at 16 to 1 "indispensable," it does not even mention that policy, or say a single word about silver. The new issue of imperialism has forced the old one of the national finances into the background.

Upon this new issue the Iowa Democrats first "rejoice in the exalted sentiment and motive that prompted the Government of the United States to take up arms in defence of the bitterly oppressed people of Cuba, and in the successful termination of the war with Spain, its patriotism, and the unsurpassed bravery displayed by our soldiers and sailors on land and sea." They declare that "war for liberation of the tyranny-cursed island was worthy of the greatest republic, but for the same reason that we glory in the successful war against Spain, we deprecate and condemn the war against the Filipinos." They characterize the first as for the emancipation of a people, and the other for the subjugation of a people, and insist that, "if the war against Spain was right, and it was, that against the natives of the Philippines, who have committed no offence save to love liberty, and to be willing to fight and die for it, is wrong." They assert that "the attempt, unauthorized by Congress, to conquer the natives of Oriental islands is a repudiation of the American doctrine affirmed in the Declaration of Independence, and in conflict with the principles which George Washington and the patriots of the Revolution made sacrifices to establish." The last resolution in the series is as follows:

"We oppose conquest of the Philippines because imperialism means militarism, because militarism means government by force, and because government by force means the death of government by consent, the destruction of political and industrial freedom, and the obliteration of equality of rights and assassination of democratic institutions."

All this is sound doctrine. It is an excellent statement of propositions which can be seriously discussed and ought to be so discussed. The fly in the ointment is an absurd plank which expresses the belief that the war against the Filipinos was "inspired by Great Britain for the purpose of producing conditions that will force an Anglo-American alliance"; which not only protests against the war and demands its termination by the extension to the Filipinos of the same assurance given to the Cubans, but records "our deep-seated antagonism to an alliance with Great Britain or any other European Power," and expresses "our detestation of the attempt made in British interests to disrupt the friendly relations which have uniformly existed between the United States and Germany." This is a most transparent bid for both

Irish and German votes on demagogical grounds.

The other principal feature of the platform is the portion devoted to Trusts. The Iowa Democrats "view with alarm" the multiplication of these combinations of capital, call them "the direct outgrowth of the policy of the Republican party," condemn this policy, declare their "solemn conviction that the Trusts must be destroyed or they will destroy free government," and "demand that they be suppressed by repeal of the protective tariff and other privilege-conferring legislation responsible for them, by the enactment of such legislation, State and national, as will aid in their destruction."

The significance of all this is that the party evidently welcomes the chance to make an aggressive fight along the new lines of battle, which have been laid out under the eye of the commander-in-chief. Bryan not only was favored for the nomination next year, but was in Des Moines while the managers were framing the platform, and approved the course which was taken. The Iowa Democrats have undoubtedly "sounded the keynote" for their party in the Presidential campaign of 1900, provided that the conditions in the Philippines shall not materially change before next summer. Under existing conditions all the politicians in both parties could not make silver the chief issue next year, nor prevent the expansion policy from being the one which will engage the attention of the people. Issues are born out of the course of events and the feeling of the voters about those events; they are not made to order by a little group of political schemers. The war in the Philippines is what the people are thinking about, and even if Bryan should try his best to organize the Democratic politicians, and Mark Hanna the Republican, to make another fight over the silver issue, they could not succeed. Bryan evidently sees this. The readiness of the Iowa Democrats to make the change of base should be a warning to Republicans.

OLD-AGE PENSIONS.

At the moment when the British Parliament received the report of its committee favoring a national system of pensions for the aged, the Pennsylvania Railroad Company announced that it had matured a plan for the benefit of its superannuated workmen. To the superficial observer it may seem that these movements indicate a universal tendency; but the supposed analogy disappears when the difference between the agencies controlling the distribution of the pensions is considered. Ultimately, it is hardly too much to say, the pension policy of a government tends to be determined by the pensioners. The experience of the United States is practi-

cally decisive on that point. The ordinary Congressman does not dare to propose any reform of the scandalous abuses of our system, but is rather disposed to extend its scope, both by general and by special acts. The pensioners constitute a privileged class, often numerous enough to hold the balance of power at the polls, and they are solidly united against any reduction of their stipends. It is true that the interests of the masses should control the action of legislators, but practically legislators can seldom resist the demands of any large and well-organized body of voters. The masses are ignorant and indifferent. The interested classes are alert and insistent. It is hard to prevent them from enlarging their claims. It is impossible to cut them down when once allowed.

A railroad company differs from a state in that it has no "politics" in its constitution. There are not two organized bodies of men each trying to get hold of the management for the purpose of installing its members in the offices. The purpose of its existence is to sell transportation to the public at a price that shall pay all expenses, and furnish besides a reasonable compensation to the people who have spent their money in building and equipping the road. Of course, human nature being what it is, there is frequently a great deal of jobbery in railroad management. But, as a general rule, it is true that the stockholders choose managers because of the ability which they have displayed in attaining the legitimate ends of the railroad. Managers that cannot manage so as to pay dividends, have to give place to more competent men.

But in a government there are no tangible dividends. Governments do not make money, but spend it. They have no means of support except what they obtain from the revenues which their subjects earn. Their operations may promote the general welfare, but they do not directly increase the financial welfare of any one except their officers. Hence the responsibility of legislators for financial results is of the slightest. If times are hard, the people will generally hold the Administration responsible, but, as a rule, unjustly. Under President Harrison the Republicans passed the pension bill, the silver bill, the bill admitting the mining Territories as States, and a high tariff bill which struck off the revenue from the sugar duties. These measures so depleted the Treasury as to bring on a panic, which was attributed to the Administration of President Cleveland, although he did his best to repair the mischief. The mass of the people are altogether incapable of fixing responsibility for financial mismanagement by their rulers, while the stockholders of a corporation have some capability of this kind, although it is limited.

Hence, the chief inquiry concerning a

railway's pension system is a scientific one. We want to know the figures showing the term of employment, the wages paid, the probable duration of life, etc., just as we ask similar questions about an insurance company. The Pennsylvania Railroad Company, we may be sure, made a careful investigation of the whole subject before deciding on its plan. The plan involves the compulsory retirement of employees at the age of seventy years, or in some cases between sixty-five and seventy years. It implies practically service of the company for life, and is in addition to the relief-fund already provided for those invalided, which fund is also enlarged in its scope. Calculation has doubtless been made that this system will be economically advantageous to all parties. Employees will know that faithful service on their part will secure them against want in their old age, and will be encouraged to make additional provision for themselves. Stockholders will consider that the expense of the pensions will be repaid by better service, by the automatic displacement of the superannuated, and by the creation of a permanent force of employees. The latter will look on their pensions not as alms, but as accumulated earnings, or as increased wages paid for prolonged service.

The plan laid before the English Parliament is theoretically sound. It is meant only for virtuous citizens who have been able to support themselves up to the age of sixty-five, but who find themselves at that age with an income of less than ten shillings a week. No one sentenced to penal servitude within twenty years, no one who has received poor relief (except medical relief) within twenty years, no one who has not tried to the best of his ability to make provision for himself and those dependent on him, is to have a pension. These conditions are practically absurd. We know what similar ones amount to in this country. We have seen the practical operation of limiting pensions to those free from "vicious habits," and who are unable to support themselves by manual labor because of "mental or physical disability of a permanent character." These restraints are not applied, and it is vain to try to apply them. The restraints proposed in the English scheme are even more preposterous. The idea of ascertaining whether a million, or several million, persons have done their best to make provision for old age, is altogether fantastical. Such investigations, to amount to anything, would require a vast force of officials whose expenses would be more than the pensions. The additional inquiries concerning good character for twenty years and the receipt of alms would be almost equally difficult. In a small village, where population is not migratory, such investigations might be practicable. In great cities they would ordinarily be hopeless.

But even if the scheme proposed could be worked, at the estimated cost of £10,000,000 a year, that is not the end of it. It is only the entering wedge. A very urgent demand is already made for extending the limits of the scheme. It is vain to urge that such alms-giving discourages thrift; that if the possession of a few pounds in the savings bank is to prevent a man from getting a pension, he will not think it worth while to save. Such arguments are beside the question, because, as we have said, it is a political one. The pensions have been promised, and the populace demands them. The *Spectator* declares that if the proposed scheme is adopted, difficulties and perplexities will arise which must ultimately ruin not only the Government, but the present safe and vigorous system of finance. Hence it suggests that it would be wise to begin with pensions for those aged 75 years, with some further restrictions. It adds that "nothing would be easier" than to reduce the age to 65, if it seemed wise. That is true; but it is also true that, after taking a step of this kind, retreat is impossible. *Facilis descensus*, and when the common people have once learned that they can be supported at the public expense without the opprobrium of the alms-house, they will not be satisfied until they have fully exploited this bountiful source of revenue.

THE DISCOVERY OF THE AGORA AT CORINTH.

AUGUST 4, 1899.

Since I described, somewhat more than a year ago, in these columns, the discovery of Pirene, the excavations at Corinth have yielded another important result, which makes it permissible, if not desirable, that this truly American work, which is going on so far away from the eyes of most Americans, should be trumpeted out a little at home. When I look back on the results of three excavation campaigns of from two to three months each, I am filled with wonder that we have been able to accomplish so much.

In the year 1895, when the excavations of the American School conducted by Dr. Waldstein at the Argive Heraeum had come to a close, the managing committee of the School, through its chairman, asked me what excavation enterprise I had to propose, assuring me that whatever selection I made would be supported to the extent of the resources which the School had at its disposition. To this question I replied promptly. For more than a year I had had Corinth in my mind. I had felt that the time had come for the excavation of a large Greek city, which up to that time had not been attempted. Corinth afforded an opportunity to make this beginning, because the prosperous town that covered a good deal of the site of the ancient city had been wiped out by the earthquake of 1859. And yet I was appalled at the magnitude of the undertaking. The area of the old city was well known from traces of the ancient wall; but within this area, at the foot of the imposing Acro-Corinth, extending about a mile from north to south and nearly two miles from east to west, not one point of an-

cient Corinth was identified. There was, to be sure, a probability that one might strike something almost anywhere; but that one would miss the important things was vastly more likely. That one should hit the bull's-eye without some sort of suggestion was the most unlikely thing of all. A Greek ephor, M. Skias, had in 1890 made one attempt to find the Agora, resting upon a theory which he had formed in regard to its location—an attempt which had only a negative result. M. Skias came to the conclusion that very little of the Greek city would ever be brought to light. Feeling the uncertainty of any immediate results of excavations in this great area, I had for a time turned my attention to Argos, which affords a little strip of free ground, at the foot of its acropolis, while the rest of the ancient city is largely covered by the modern city of ten thousand inhabitants. But there was some difficulty in securing that particular area in Argos, and I had already reverted to Corinth when I was called upon to make my selection.

In order, however, to have two strings to my bow, I secured from the representative of the Greek Government in archaeological matters the concession not only of Corinth, but also of Sicyon, where the School had already rendered conspicuous service in excavating the Theatre. Prof. B. I. Wheeler, my colleague for that year, then visited with me both sites, in order that, as he expressed it, "we might not be talking through our hat" in answering the committee. As he concurred with me in the belief that Sicyon offered no essential encouragements which the more important neighbor city did not also afford, Corinth was the choice.

In the spring of 1896 we took the field, and dug more than twenty trial trenches, spread out over a wide area, but most of them in or near the wretched hamlet which goes by the name of Old Corinth, with the hope of finding out where to strike in earnest. It was only after this stage was reached that we could ask the Greek Government to step in and expropriate the land. Although we found much that was of interest, particularly vases of all ages, in several of these trenches, it was not until near the end of the three months' work that we gained, partially at least, our object. In Trench xviii we found, as we had hoped, the Theatre. This was buried under from fifteen to twenty feet of earth and badly broken up. So, after digging branches and supplements to our main trench until we got up to xviii f, we left it unexcavated, and so it lies to-day. Prof. Babbitt, however, made a plan of it, accompanied by a full description.

But the importance of the Theatre lay in the fact that it gave us the first identified point. Pausanias has a fairly full and fairly clear description of Corinth; and, having secured one point, we were on his track. Had we had a second point, we could at once have drawn a line and placed most of the monuments which we have now found. Had the name of the venerable temple ruin by which Corinth has long been known to travellers been known to us, we should even then have had this line. It is true that I guessed its name and recorded my guess in the report of this first year's work.

In a trench dug in a valley just east of this temple, we found at a depth of about

twenty feet a broad pavement, which, combined with the configuration of the soil, made me think that the Agora was near. To find the Agora was to solve the topography of Corinth, because Pausanias, after describing what is inside the Agora, proceeds out from it, describing monuments right and left along the main streets.

I can never adequately set forth the impatience with which I waited for the opportunity to put my guesses to the test of another excavation campaign. When the time came around to begin, the campaign dropped out on account of the war between Greece and Turkey; and two years of waiting increased my eagerness to a fever. In the work of 1898, proceeding up the valley east of the temple, we found buried under thirty feet of earth Pirene, the most famous fountain of Greece, with its architecture (a two-story façade) almost intact, except for the loss of its marble facing. There was much else in the work of that year that was interesting—public attention was especially drawn to the inscription from the Synagogue in which St. Paul preached; but the main result was Pirene. If we had found but two stones of it, it would have been important because it was our second point; and now we had our line. It was the same as if we had the Agora. We could now point in a certain direction and say, "There is the Agora"; but we could not tell quite how far away it was. But a broad marble staircase, thirty steps of which we laid bare, leading from the broad pavement before mentioned up the valley lengthwise, towards where it ended in a broad level space, led us to think that it was near. How very near we little knew. The campaign came to an end without the complete uncovering of Pirene.

This year I began the campaign with just as much interest, but no feverish eagerness. The finding of the Agora was now simply a question of time. I had outlined to the committee, as the work of this campaign, the completing the excavation of Pirene, the excavation of the temple, and the proceeding towards the Agora as far as the money held out. The three movements we carried on at the same time.

When we began to proceed up the marble staircase which led up the valley, we found that we were already at the top, and almost immediately we found the foundations of the propylæa, mentioned by Pausanias, through which the street to Lechaon, the harbor of Corinth on the Corinthian Gulf, passed out of the Agora. From the mere mention of Pausanias one would have no idea of the magnificent position of this gateway, looking down the valley, challenging the gaze, the observed of all observers. It was what we were looking for; but it came so suddenly that I did not dare to believe in our good fortune, nor did I announce it until the end of the campaign, when we had gone a long way through the propylæa, and cleared a considerable portion of the Agora itself.

Two important results followed. The "Old Temple" became at once and for all time the Apollo Temple, because it lies just where Pausanias puts the Apollo Temple. Then the huge, rough-hewn block of native rock just west of the temple was found to be a fountain, at the time dried up, with only about a third of its height protruding from the ground. Not until we had cleared it out to the bottom could we be sure that

it was a fountain-house; and then we knew from its position that it was the fountain Glauke, called after the unfortunate princess of that name, the wife of Jason, who threw herself into it to escape the fiery poison given her by Medea, who, if she could not have Jason, would destroy all that belonged to him.

All the results of our work will appear as heretofore in the *American Journal of Archaeology*. The story need not be made complete here. In brief, in three campaigns we proceeded straight to the goal. The two touchdowns were the Theatre and Pirene; the goal was the Agora. Before the close of our work this year, one who is universally recognized as a leader in the archaeological world said in public: "Since the excavations of the American School we have a topography of Corinth. Before, all was conjecture and confusion." These conjectures, to some of which great names were attached, were, of course, mutually contradictory, and most of them now seem ridiculous. One who has gone below the surface and found the bottom facts is privileged to smile at the great guessers of the past, and appropriate the words which Metternich used of his companions in statecraft: "My God! how wrong they are, and how right I am."

Without the aid of several generous donors, this work, which has cost about \$3,000 a year, could not have been carried on. The School, which is doing a fine work in quickening classical learning, is barely self-supporting. Excavating, which is that part of its activity which arouses most interest in Greece, and probably elsewhere, has to be paid for by a few willing friends. May these never grow less, but more! A buried city, and a famous one, is being brought to light by our American School. While Germany is laying bare Miletus, and Austria Ephesus, we ought to keep pace with them at Corinth.

RUFUS B. RICHARDSON.

HUMANISM IN EDUCATION.

OXFORD, July 31, 1899.

The Romanes lecture, delivered here, towards the end of the academic year just closed, by Prof. Jebb, deserves a particular sort of attention from those who are concerned with the teaching of the classics in America. Attention can best be aroused, I am convinced, by dwelling on particular points which the lecturer made, and I shall therefore venture to refer those desirous of getting at the discourse as a whole to its published form, a pamphlet which was procurable on the day of the lecture.*

Prof. Jebb began with an historical retrospect which occupied about one-half of his discourse, and paved the way for a luminous and cautiously framed delineation of the present functions and future prospects of classical studies in the education of our times. His argument bore most specifically upon education in England; but he did not avoid general considerations, nor could a survey of the present usefulness and future possibilities for Englishmen of classical training fail to have its very direct bearing upon the problems of American education in the present day. In this retrospect the new education inaugurated by the

Italian Renaissance in the period between Dante and Erasmus occupied much of the lecturer's attention. Mediæval education was averse to literary studies, since it was chiefly scholastic philosophy and theology, with law and medicine, upon which mediæval thought had been focussed. Greek, having been altogether lost in the West, had no place in the training of the Middle Ages. Ecclesiastical influences predominated everywhere, and the teaching of such Latin authors as were read was "encumbered with a fantastic pedantry" which insisted, for instance, that every passage construed might have "four meanings—literal, metaphorical, allegorical, and mystical." Mediæval education had, in fact, the well-defined practical aim of preparing its pupils for the Church, for Law, or for Medicine. The only rudiments of a general all-round training which the Middle Ages yielded were apt to associate themselves with life in the households of princes or nobles, and with prevailing physical or military preoccupations. Thus, until that time of intellectual and artistic quickening known as the "Revival of Learning" was at hand, education in Christendom had a markedly narrow and technical complexion.

In contrast with this, Prof. Jebb described the educational innovations of Vittorino da Feltre, called from the chair of rhetoric at Padua to undertake at Mantua the education of Marquis Gonzaga's children. Unlike most mediæval educators, this innovator, Vittorino, was no ecclesiastic. He nevertheless, as the speaker averred, "neither felt nor sought any conflict between the classical and the Christian ideal." He planned, and carried out in practice, an education "at once intellectual, moral, and physical." Improving upon the "old court training" of mediæval days in a thoroughly Greek vein, he gave an "education in which mind and body should be harmoniously developed." "No antique idea," said the lecturer, "appealed with greater force to the humanists, since none presented a stronger contrast to mediæval practice." The purely intellectual features of Vittorino's scheme were, if possible, opposed still more sharply to ecclesiasticism. Without having in view for his pupil any special calling, his aim was to form "good citizens, useful members of society, men capable of bearing their part with credit in public or private life. He treated the great writers of antiquity as living men," into whose mind and soul it was possible to penetrate "by sympathetic study." At first only Latin authors were used, but in time some Greek was taught at the Pleasant House (La Giocosa), a villa where Vittorino's school was organized. Music, mathematics, and such science as the time could boast of also received attention. Vittorino's whole system earned the name of humanistic, "not simply or chiefly because the intellectual part of it was based on Greek and Latin," but, "in a more important sense," because it aimed to develop "the pupil's whole nature, intellectual, moral, and physical."

The lecturer then spoke of the foundation of Winchester College in Vittorino's boyhood, and noted that the Mantuan public school at La Giocosa was in its prime when Henry VI. founded Eton. Still, not either of these, but St. Paul's School, founded by Dean Colet, the friend of Erasmus, was "the oldest English school which was

humanistic from its origin"; and the Statutes of Harrow, dated 1590, gave what seemed to be one of the earliest, if not the earliest, English example of "detailed regulations, as distinguished from merely general prescription, concerning the school study of Greek." Then, having noted that this education of the earlier Renaissance in Italy culminated in the establishment of the study of Greek in English schools, the lecturer summarily glanced at the expansion of the resources of humanism "as an instrument of education, by the manifold development of the higher classical learning in the centuries since the Renaissance."

As the outcome of modern archaeological research, he said that antiquity had gained "a more vivid reality," and the ideal of humanism has been "reinforced in a manner which brings back to us something of the spirit which animated the Renaissance when it was largest and most vigorous." For the enthusiasm of the Renaissance, Prof. Jebb here pointedly added, "was nourished by the monuments of classical art scarcely less than by the masterpieces of literature." But this very progress, so recently made, had brought us, he averred, to a point where "the larger benefits of humanism become more difficult to harmonize with the new standards of special knowledge." To understand the Greek and Latin literatures required "some study of ancient thought, ancient history, archaeology, art," while to become an expert in any of these branches was "the work of years." On this account, he added, in words which might be taken as a fair enough description of the training which culminates in the existing school of *literæ humaniores* at Oxford, "much can be said in favor of a plan by which the university student who is to devote a course of three or four years to the humane letters, confines himself, during the earlier stage of it, to the languages and literatures; then turns away from these viewed in their wider range, and concentrates himself for the rest of his time on one or two important aspects of classical antiquity, such as philosophy and history, to the exclusion of the rest."

Having thus described the modern and "reinforced" ideal of humanism in its culmination at the university, the lecturer addressed himself to that necessary foundation for a humanistic course in the university which must be found in the pursuits and experiences of the younger student "in the highest form of a school where the classics are taught"—a student, he it noted, especially in view of present American conditions, "who has not yet reached the moment at which the need of specialization begins to be felt." "Give this boy-student aptitudes and tastes for literary studies; make him one of that very considerable number of boys—a number immensely larger than the number of those who are fitted to excel in Greek or Latin composition—who can be appealed to by a "world very distinct from that in which he moves," and can feel it, nevertheless, to be a world not "wholly alien." When such a youth first achieves some appreciation of the best classical poetry and prose, he goes through "a little Renaissance of his own," as Prof. Jebb happily termed it, and feels "the stimulus of discovery." In fact, he "perceives in some measure a beauty of form unlike anything that he has found elsewhere."

*The Romanes Lecture (1899): Humanism in Education. By R. C. Jebb, Litt.D., Hon. D.C.L. Delivered in the Sheldonian Theatre, June 7, 1899. Macmillan.

Something of the thought, the charm, and the music of great classical writers finds a "way into his consciousness" and dwells in his memory.

Many learners and teachers of the classics in America will unquestionably recognize Prof. Jebb's striking words as applicable to experience by no means unknown to American schoolboys engaged in preparing for the admission ordeal imposed by Harvard or Yale or any of our leading universities. But I think they will at the same time feel that the number of those in America who go through this "little Renaissance of their own" might be greatly increased if the demands of specialization in the university course for which our schoolboys are preparing did not scatter many a fairly gifted learner's powers over a somewhat formidable number of rudiments. Whatever may be the advantages secured by the usual American insistence upon the mastering of a minimum of attainment in a considerable number of subjects, one cardinal defect attaches to it inevitably. Being, under our usual system, required to dance attendance in the ante-chambers of too many of the palaces of truth which modern investigation has reared, the boy of good promise is often flurried and distracted at the very moment when he might be pressing on and entering for a brief moment the "Pleasant House" of the humanists.

Prof. Jebb gives as a date for the establishment of the study of Greek in the leading English public schools 1560-1600. This very period, when Greek was still struggling for its foothold, covers the school years of an overwhelming majority of the educated early colonists of America. Humanism and humanistic studies were yet plants of tender and uncertain growth in the England from which our forefathers severed themselves. It is, doubtless, fair to say that those of their number who could be classed as intellectual were chiefly among the New England pioneers. Just among them it is especially noticeable that mediæval preoccupations with theological controversy were especially at home. The whole episode of Sir Henry Vane's brief tenure of the governorship in Massachusetts Bay, if carefully entered into, will show that the atmosphere of early New England, like that of the Middle Ages, was averse to literary studies, and must reveal why the humanistic training of the Renaissance had but a precarious and stunted growth in New England. Sir Henry Vane was at Westminster School and at Oxford, Roger Williams was at Charterhouse, and several others (the Winthrops, for instance) must have had good schooling in England, but they were all brought to America in the heat of theological dissensions which made a fair flowering of the newly planted humanism impossible. Of contemporary and new intellectual movements in England, that which culminated in the foundation of the Royal Society attracted the most attention and roused the most enthusiasm in New England.

If we turn to William Penn's later colony, or to the earlier planting of Virginia, we find the same absence of any and every condition favorable to the new humanism and humanistic study. Outside of New England, theological enthusiasm was less, but commercial preoccupations too often took its place. It is accordingly our plain duty to acknowledge that humanistic studies in America were starved at the outset, and never enjoyed that full contact with the

spirit of the early Italian Renaissance which was gradually transforming the schools of England, at just the critical moment when the American colonies were planted. Our Renaissance did not reach its completion until the movement from Germany inaugurated about fifty years ago. This remarkably fruitful movement shows so many signs of affinity with specialism, and found our soil so ill prepared, that a native growth of American humanism seems now more than ever problematical. We can hardly say with Prof. Jebb that the progress of knowledge during the last fifty years has "reinforced" our ideal of humanism, since there are facts tending to show that "the spirit which animated the Renaissance when it was largest and most vigorous" never fully and freely visited our Western shores until we had framed, without it, that whole system of the "good old-fashioned" college course which is one of our stumbling-blocks to-day.

In the second half of his lecture Prof. Jebb asked what was the general position of the humane letters in England at the present day, and what are their prospects of retaining this position? The progress of science, he declared—as who must not?—had been the most salient feature in the intellectual development of this century. And he added that this century was the first since the revival of learning in which a serious challenge had been thrown down to the defenders of the humanistic tradition. "But I think," was his conclusion, "that the position of humanism in this country at the close of the century is much stronger than it was at the beginning." There were certain elements in the imaginative literature of the early nineteenth century which worked on the whole against humanistic study, and there was "no popular force tending to spread a recognition of the humanistic ideal." All that has changed, for the influence of Tennyson throughout the English-speaking world "has made strongly for an appreciation of the classical spirit." Then, also, there had been, the lecturer said, the influence of Matthew Arnold, less popular, but not less penetrating than Tennyson's, whereby the distinctive qualities of the best Greek achievement have been subtly conveyed to the understanding of cultivated readers. And of Grote's great work he said that it had done more than any other one book of the century to "invest his subject with a vivid, an almost modern interest for a world wider than the academic." Such works, furthermore, as those of Symonds and Sellar had served to popularize the classical literatures in a scholarly sense, while translations "such as that by which Prof. Jowett has made Plato an English classic," have completed the work of this serviceable classicizing literature of the last forty years. I think we may also add that the controversy which for a time raged in America some ten or a dozen years ago, played a by no means contemptible rôle in bringing to the popular mind some sense of the importance of the Greek achievement.

All these considerations may, therefore, embolden the American humanist, whatever be the discouragements of his immediate outlook as compared with the brighter prospects of his fellows in England. We may, perhaps, even for America, cherish the hope that the danger which threatened

humanism a generation ago has lost some of its worst terrors. What Prof. Jebb describes as "the powerful alliance between insurgent men of science and disaffected humanists, aided by the legions of Philistia," will probably not succeed in permanently dropping Greek in the schools for all but a few boys. And so we may hope that classical studies in America may not be, in the lecturer's words, "so narrowed, so hampered, so maimed, as to lose nearly all their distinctive educational value and die out of the schools." LOUIS DYER.

MEMOIRS OF MME. DE LA FERRONAYS.

—I.

PARIS, August 2, 1899.

It is not often that people publish their memoirs in their lifetime; they generally leave that care to their successors. Chateaubriand was induced by financial difficulties to market his famous *Mémoires d'Outre-tombe*, but this title sufficiently proves that the memoirs were not to appear while he was alive. He contented himself with having them read aloud, in fragments, in the drawing-room of Madame Récamier. I do not know what reasons induced Madame de la Ferronays to publish her memoirs, which appeared a few days ago, and which are making a great sensation in the class of society in which Madame de la Ferronays has moved and taken a prominent place for (I may almost say) half a century, and which goes under the familiar name of the Faubourg St.-Germain. If she herself was born in what she calls "a family of high bourgeoisie," she became, by her marriage, a part of the Legitimist society, and has remained all her life a staunch royalist. What gives a peculiar interest to her memoirs is their Legitimist tinge. I will not note here stories and anecdotes innumerable on purely social questions, on well-known families, on persons who have more or less notoriety. They are often related with *esprit*, but they are in a sense what the French call *hors d'œuvre*. The history of the relations of the La Ferronays with the Count de Chambord has a more permanent and general interest.

Immediately after her marriage, Madame de la Ferronays started with her husband for Italy, to see her mother-in-law, who lived at the Villa Buonvisi, near Lucca. Her mother-in-law was extremely pious; she herself had, she says, read books not much in accordance with what was approved at the Villa Buonvisi. "I called the Queen Mary Tudor the 'bloody Queen'; I vaunted willingly the greatness of Queen Elisabeth; I considered Gregory VII. and Innocent IV. as scourges of the human race. It was in this way that history was then taught, and, with some modifications, I have not entirely got over this way of thinking." Her father-in-law, during the Revolution, served in the army of Condé, and was a devoted friend of the royal family in exile. Attached to the Duke de Berry, he became a sort of political courier for the Princes on the Continent. On the very day when the unfortunate Duke d'Enghien was arrested, he had been sent to him with a message from the Duke de Berry, and left his house an hour before the Prince was arrested by the gendarmes sent by Bonaparte. He returned to France in 1814 with the King and the Princes, and when the Duke de Berry

was married, he became the master of his household. The Duke had a very violent temper, and, after a scene of which the details are not given, M. de la Ferronays left his service. He was appointed Ambassador to Russia, where he remained several years; he became very intimate with the Emperor Nicholas—so much so that, after the Revolution of 1830, the Tsar, "feeling concerned for the financial embarrassments in which he might be placed, sent a courier through the whole of Europe to place his privy purse at his disposal. My father-in-law declined it; but the generosity of the Emperor demanded from him the acceptance of a pension of 24,000 francs, half of which, after his death, was continued to my mother-in-law."

After 1830 M. de la Ferronays received the delicate mission of reestablishing relations between the royal family, which was living near Prague, and the Duchess de Berry. The "King" was very angry with the Princess, who had thrown herself against his wish, into the insurrectionary movement in La Vendée, and had given such a singular end to her expedition. She had been made a prisoner, and in prison gave birth to a child. She declared that she had been secretly married to Count Lucchesi-Palli. The King wished to see the marriage act, and, it having been produced, he pardoned her.

M. de la Ferronays, after having presented his wife to his parents at the Villa Buonvisi, had to present her to the members of the royal family in exile. They first took the road to Brunsee, where lived the Duchess de Berry, called simply Madame. "Brunsee was a fine habitation, with a grand air, worthy of the great Princess whom the tempest had thrown there. M. de Lucchesi had, before the public, the position of first chamberlain; but when, with all the forms of the greatest respect, he gave advice to Madame, she followed it without hesitation. The children did not yet appear before strangers. [The Duchess de Berry had five children by her second marriage, four of whom lived. The eldest, Anna, born in the citadel of Blaye, died a year after.]" The next visit was to Kirchberg, a house belonging to the Blacas, who had put it at the disposal of the royal family. Madame de la Ferronays was introduced to all the members, to the Dauphin, who was "very red"; to the Count de Chambord, who was just recovering from a fall from his horse which left him a little lame for the rest of his life.

On her return to Paris, Madame de la Ferronays began the series of visits which were the necessary preface to her new life—to the Duchess de Montmorency, to the Viscountess de Noailles, etc.; she tells many anecdotes of the ladies who were at that time the stars of society. Of Madame de Montmorency she relates:

"She had *le plus grand air du monde*. Her youth had been spent with the emigration, and she had almost known want. Her eldest daughter, the Princess of Bouffremont, was a model of every virtue; as much cannot be alleged of her second daughter. It was said that when the latter was on the point of marrying M. Louis de Talleyrand, titled Duke of Valençay, her maternal grandmother, Mme. de M—, called her, and said to her: 'My dear child, there are three ways of conducting one's life: the first is to do as I did, to defy Mrs. Grundy and to amuse yourself much; the second is the way of your mother, who respects propriety; the third is to imitate your sister, but it is very tiresome.' The epoch of the youth of Madame de M— was one in which there was much

frankness, and I heard it said that a very great lady of the Court of Louis XV., finding herself at breakfast in a château where a numerous company was assembled, and the talk was of a violent storm which had taken place in the night, 'Indeed,' said one of the invited guests, 'it was dreadful; and I said to the Bishop, "Do get up and draw the curtains."' This gallant Bishop was also a *grand seigneur*."

"One of the salons of the time was that of an American lady, daughter-in-law of the Thorns, who were the first Americans to keep a great establishment in Paris. To be admitted to it was a brevet of elegance. The fat Princess Léonie de Béthune did the honors there; she was an old spinster, of a rather vulgar appearance, sufficiently ill-natured, and of whom, though people feared her tongue, rather ugly things were said."

The Thorns inhabited the magnificent hôtel which, in our time, belonged to the Duchess of Galliera, and has since become the Austrian Embassy. A sister of M. de la Ferronays was married to Mr. Craven.

"She so completely identified herself with the English nationality that she acquired an English accent in speaking French; she approved and accepted only the English ways of living. Mr. Craven, wholly devoted to Lord Palmerston, executed for him several secret missions, not much in harmony with what ought to have been the sentiments of my sister-in-law, and was sent to France, after the conclusion of the Spanish marriages, as private secretary to Lord Normanby. . . . Later, it was Mr. Craven who, though retired from the diplomatic service, prepared the crisis which ended in the fall of the monarchy of the Two Sicilies."

In 1843 the Count de Chambord held a sort of royalist levee in London, where he stayed for a time in Belgrave Square. The La Ferronays, of course, were there. "The most important of the personages surrounding the Prince, who was treated with the greatest consideration, and who, at any rate, thought himself most worthy of respect, was Viscount Chateaubriand. He alone, in the drawing-room where all stood, used to sit in his chair, which he never left." Madame de la Ferronays was presented to him. "He hardly inclined his head to bow. I did not feel much enthusiasm before the man whom pride had (involuntarily, perhaps) rendered so fatal to the monarchy." In the same year M. de la Ferronays took his wife to Lorraine, where lived, in the château of Saint-Mars, the last survivor of the eldest branch of his family, a lady who had long been a canoness and married late a gentleman of Lorraine, the Count de Gosset, "to whom she considered that she had paid a great honor, and whose name, after his death, she adopted the habit of dropping. Saint-Mars was an immense place, which suffered much during the Revolution. Madame de Gosset was a strong Legitimist, and chose the second La Ferronays of the younger branch for her heir."

In 1845 the sister of the Count de Chambord was married to the heir of the Duchy of Lucca. "Exiled princesses are difficult to place, and this marriage was made in spite of the Pretender's reputation for levity." A year afterwards, the union of the Count de Chambord with the Archduchess Theresa was announced, and caused great astonishment in the royalist party. "The Princess was three years older than her royal husband, and was known to be far from handsome." Several unions had been thought of for the Count, among them a marriage with the Grand Duchess Helen (who died Duchess of Nassau). Notwithstanding the concessions made by the Emperor, who insisted that the Grand Duchess

should be married in the Orthodox Church, but consented to leave her entire liberty to enter the Catholic Church the day after the ceremony, the Dauphiness absolutely refused to allow a union with a schismatic. It was necessary to look elsewhere. The choice seemed to fall upon a daughter of the Duke of Modena, the only reigning prince who had refused to recognize the legitimacy of the royalty of the Orleans-Bourbon branch. He had two daughters, Theresa and Beatrice. The latter had, unfortunately, "a passion for Don Juan, second son of Don Carlos." "There is no way to combat or to explain the follies of young persons, even Archduchesses." There remained Theresa. The future Countess de Chambord was tall and had *un grand air*; but, at her birth, an accident had deformed one side of her face. . . . Educated at the court of Modena, where the most complete absolutism, the most reactionary ideas, were the rule, she had felt this influence; and what was called liberalism seemed to her an insult to the divine law."

Correspondence.

CALIFORNIA AND THE WAR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: California is popularly supposed to be a stronghold of "expansion," since the commercial benefits expected from this policy might very naturally be heaviest on this coast. Recent developments have, however, put the California expansionists in a very laughable predicament. When we entered upon the humanitarian war with Spain, and the President called for volunteers, California was the first State to turn over a regiment to the United States Government, and her generous enthusiasm was still further shown by the great number of Californians who enlisted in the various regiments from other States while they were encamped at the Presidio in San Francisco. After the war became one of conquest in the Philippines, and troubles began to thicken around the Administration, so that a call for volunteers was talked of in Washington, the two Senators from California sent a telegram to President McKinley, offering him an entire regiment from southern California. The men, they said, were ready and eager to enlist.

The call has now been issued, and recruiting offices opened in Los Angeles, the headquarters of the regiment so generously and promptly offered to the President. Witness the result! The latest dispatch from Los Angeles says that Lieut. Chappalear has been ordered to leave Los Angeles for San Diego, in the hope that he may find a few recruits there for the Thirty-fifth Volunteers. During the last week at Los Angeles just one recruit was obtained, and he was a Chinaman born in this country. It makes all the difference in the world, even to commercial Californians, what we are fighting for, and the State that was quickest to muster in troops for one war, bids fair to be the slowest to find men for our present policy of aggression.

EDSON R. SUNDERLAND.

OAKLAND, CAL., August 11, 1899.

THE STUDY OF HISTORY IN SCHOOLS.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: The communication in your issue of August 10, referring to the report of the Committee of Seven on the "Study of History in Schools," seems to me to contain certain fundamental errors. I heartily agree with the writer that it is time that the secondary-school men freed themselves from the domination of the colleges, and in great measure arranged and organized the curriculum to suit themselves. But in the performance of that task they may, perhaps, receive some assistance from the reports of various committees that have been studying the problem from the standpoint of specialists interested in certain subjects. There is nothing in the nature of dictation in the report of the Committee of Seven. It is the result of two years of careful work, and if there is anything in it that is helpful, the teachers may profit by it. What is not acceptable need not be adopted. The reader of the report will see that the secondary school is nowhere in the report spoken of as primarily a preparatory school. Indeed, it is because the Committee believes that history is of great importance in a curriculum which is made up for the purpose of fitting boys and girls for intelligent citizenship, not simply for entering college, that the chief emphasis is laid upon the educational value of historical work rather than upon the acquisition of a modicum of information sufficient to meet college requirements.

The writer of the communication has also erred in saying that "the historians have just insisted on four full years for them." A good many schools now give four years to history, and the Committee, after studying European and American schools, consulting teachers, and examining programmes, has marked out what is believed to be a model four years' course. But to insist on four years of history as a college entrance requirement did not so much as occur to the Committee. We believe that, following present tendencies, the secondary schools of this country will before long give continuous courses in history, especially for those students that are not required to spend from one-third to one-half of their time on ancient languages; but we have not insisted upon anything like this.

Finally, it seems to me that the task of the secondary-school man has been lightened, not increased, by the reports of the committees of specialists. He now has before him a long list of recommendations and suggestions. It is not too much to expect that he can obtain help from them; he cannot reach the impossible, and crowd eight years of work into four, or treat each subject as if it were the only one needing consideration. It is to be remembered that the report of the Committee of Seven was prepared at the suggestion of Superintendent Nightingale, chairman of a committee of the National Educational Association, an association composed almost solely of secondary teachers. This committee has been charged with the labor of making recommendations for the unifying of college entrance requirements. It is such a body as this, and not a committee of specialists, that must seek to reconcile conflicting claims and organize a systematic programme. Above all, it is not to be expected that, when a committee of historical students has prepared a report in response to Mr. Nightingale's request, the report will

be considered a piece of presumptuous interference on the part of college professors.

ANDREW C. McLAUGHLIN,
Chairman of the Committee of Seven.

August 15, 1899.

THE PROPOSED "NATIONAL INSTITUTE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I have received with much regret a proposition, signed by several eminent names, and looking towards the establishment of "The National Institute of Art, Science, and Letters," to consist of 200 members. My special ground for regret is that this organization, unlike almost all organizations established for similar purposes in America within the last half century, appears to be limited to one sex only.

Among national societies based upon the larger membership, and including women as well as men, are the American Social Science Association, the American Philological Society, the American Folk-Lore Society, the American Modern Language Society, the American Historical Society, the Appalachian Mountain Club, the Associated Chapters of Phi Beta Kappa, and the Association of American Authors. Many of these organizations have had women not merely as members, but as officers. Thus, Prof. Abby B. Léach was Vice-President and is now President of the Philological Society; Miss Alice Fletcher is Vice-President of the Folk-Lore Society; Mrs. Julia Ward Howe is a Vice-President of the Association of American Authors, and Mrs. Caroline Healey Dall has always, I believe, been a director of the Social Science Association.

I have been, at different times, a member of each of these societies, have been an officer of several of them, and, indeed, President of three, and I am not aware that the slightest inconvenience has ever followed from the union of both sexes in their membership, or that any proposition has ever been made looking towards a change. Meanwhile, there have been similar societies which, while originally based on a narrower plan, have expanded their membership to include women; as has been done, for instance, in the American Oriental Society and the New England Historic-Genealogical Society. Other learned societies have admitted women occasionally and sparingly, though enough to establish the precedent. Thus, the late Prof. Maria Mitchell was admitted to the American Association for the Advancement of Science, and also to the Academy of Arts and Sciences; while women are now chosen freely, I believe, into the Society of American Artists. In fact, it may safely be said that in recently formed societies of a national character for the promotion of "Art, Science, and Letters," the tendency has been all one way. Can any good reason be given why the proposed "National Institute" should attempt to turn back the tide? For one, I can take no part in such a movement, and have, therefore, felt obliged, however reluctantly, to decline the honor of its membership. THOMAS WENTWORTH HIGGINSON.

GLIMPSWOOD, DUBLIN, N. H., August 20, 1899.

THE ALASKA BOUNDARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: It may be of some interest to your readers to call attention to the testimony,

as an historical document, which the maps of North America and Canada in the ninth edition of the Encyclopædia Britannica bear to the Alaska boundary question. In both, the United States claim is distinctly sustained.

Yours, JAMES M. HUBBARD.

RIPTON, VT., August 16, 1899.

"YOUSE."

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: I am afraid your correspondent is mistaken in saying that "yous" is unknown in Ireland, for there is the best of authority on the other side. In that admirable book of Jane Barlow's, 'A Creel of Irish Stories,' a book which is the perfection of art, and of that art which does not thrust itself in your face as an end in itself, but serves as a model for the production of perfect form, the word occurs as the ordinary plural of *you*. I cannot give the page, as I have not the book at hand; but my memory is certainly not at fault, for I read it only a few days ago.

P. Q. R.

Notes.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co.'s fall announcements include three additions to the "American Statesmen" series, viz., 'Salmon P. Chase,' by Prof. Albert Bushnell Hart; 'Charles Sumner,' by Moorfield Storey; and 'Charles Francis Adams,' by his son and namesake. Also, a 'Life of Bishop Latimer,' by the Rev. A. J. Carlyle; 'Horace Bushnell,' by the Rev. T. T. Munger; 'Letters and Recollections of John Murray Forbes,' edited in two volumes by his daughter, Mrs. Sarah F. Hughes; 'Letters and Passages from Letters of Ralph Waldo Emerson to a Friend, 1838-1853,' edited by Charles Eliot Norton; 'Reminiscences,' by Julia Ward Howe, together with 'Is Polite Society Polite? and Other Essays,' by the same author; 'Contemporaries,' by Thomas Wentworth Higginson; 'Life of Rear-Admiral Charles Henry Davis,' by his son, Capt. Charles H. Davis, U. S. N.; 'The American in Holland,' by the Rev. William Elliot Griffiths; 'The Dutch and Other Quaker Colonies in America,' by John Fiske, together with 'A Century of Science, and Other Essays,' by the same author; 'The Narragansett Friends' Meeting in the Eighteenth Century,' by Caroline Hazard; 'The End of an Era'—namely, that of slavery in Virginia—by John S. Wise; 'The Prose of Edward Rowland Sill,' essays by a poet; 'Sonnets and Madrigals of Michelangelo Buonarroti,' rendered into English verse by William Wells Newell, with Italian text and notes; 'Sonnets,' from Bion, Moschus, and Bacchylides, by Lloyd Mifflin; 'Two Tragedies of Seneca,' translated by Ella Isabel Harris; 'An American Anthology,' by Edmund Clarence Stedman; 'The Martyr's Idyl, and Shorter Poems,' by Louise Imogen Guiney; 'Beyond the Hills of Dream,' poems by W. Wilfred Campbell; 'Animal and Plant Lore,' edited by Fanny D. Bergen; 'The Book of Legends,' gathered by Horace E. Scudder; 'The King's Jester, and Other Short Plays for Small Stages,' by Caro Atherton Dugan; 'Plantation Pageants,' by Joel Chandler Harris; and the 'A. L. A. Index to Portraits,' edited in two volumes by William Coolidge Lane.

Henry Holt & Co. will shortly issue 'Moulds, Mildews and Mushrooms,' by Prof. Lucien Marcus Underwood of Columbia University.

The Scribners will publish Robert Louis Stevenson's 'Letters,' edited by Sidney Colvin; 'Letters of Sidney Lanier'; a new volume of 'American Lands and Letters,' by Donald G. Mitchell; 'Search-Light Letters,' by Judge Grant; 'Fisherman's Luck, and Other Uncertain Things,' by the Rev. Henry van Dyke; 'The Authority of Criticism, and Other Essays,' by Prof. W. P. Trent; 'Anglo-Saxons and Others,' essays by Miss Aline Gorren; 'Nooks and Corners of Old New York,' illustrated, by Charles Hemstreet; an historic 'Stones of Paris,' by Benjamin Ellis Martin and Charlotte Martin, illustrated; and 'Reminiscences,' by Mrs. John Drew.

It will be convenient to divide the list of forthcoming publications of the Macmillan Co., beginning with the American contingent. This includes F. Marion Crawford's 'Life of Pope Leo XIII.'; Norman Hapgood's 'Abraham Lincoln: The Man of the People'; 'Francis Lieber,' by Prof. Lewis R. Hartley; 'The Men Who Made the Nation,' by Prof. Edwin E. Sparks; 'Topics of United States History,' by John G. Allen; 'Select Charters, and Other Documents Illustrative of American History, 1606-1775,' edited by Prof. William MacDonald; the third volume, 'National Expansion, 1783-1845,' of Prof. A. B. Hart's "American History Told by Contemporaries," and the first volume of the same editor's "Source Readers of American History," viz., 'Colonial Children,' which has its counterpart in Alice Morse Earle's 'Child Life in Colonial Days,' and its sequel in Hamlin Garland's 'Boy Life on the Prairies'; the following in Prof. Woodberry's "National Studies in American Letters"—'Brook Farm,' by Lindsay Swift, 'The Knickerbockers,' by the Rev. Henry van Dyke, 'Southern Humorists,' by John Kendrick Bangs, 'The Flower of Essex,' by Prof. Woodberry, 'The American Historical Novel,' by Paul Leicester Ford, and 'The Clergy in American Life and Letters,' by the Rev. Daniel D. Addison; 'The Development of the English Novel,' by Prof. Wilbur L. Cross; 'Studies in Literature,' second series, by Prof. Lewis E. Gates; 'An Introduction to the Poetical and Prose Works of John Milton,' by Prof. Hiram Corson; 'The United Kingdom: A Political History,' by Goldwin Smith, in two volumes; the second volume of Thomas E. Watson's 'Story of France: The Revolution'; 'The Roman History of Appian of Alexandria,' translated by Horace White, in two volumes; 'Among English Hedgerows,' by Clifton Johnson, with illustrations from the author's camera; 'Scotland's Ruined Abbeys,' by Howard Crosby Butler; 'Nature Pictures by American Poets,' edited by Annie R. Marble; 'The Listening Child,' a selection of English verse for children, by Lucy W. Thatcher; the first volume of Russell Sturgis's illustrated 'Dictionary of Architecture'; a newly rewritten edition of Prof. Charles H. Moore's 'Development and Character of Gothic Architecture'; August Mau's 'Pompeii,' translated by Prof. Francis W. Kelsey; 'Tropical Colonization,' by Alleyne Ireland; 'The Economic Works of Sir William Petty,' edited by Prof. Charles H. Hull; 'How Can I Earn My Living?' a handbook for women, by Mrs. Helen C. Candee; and the first volume of a 'Cyclopædia of American Horticulture,' by Prof. L. H. Bailey.

The English portion of Macmillan's list embraces 'Cardinal Newman as Anglican and Catholic,' by Edmund Sheridan Purcell; 'The Life and Letters of Archbishop Benson,' edited by his son; the Autobiography of Clement Scott, dramatic critic of the *Daily Telegraph*; the ninth and concluding volume, with index, of Henry B. Wheatley's admirable edition of Pepys's Diary; 'Sir Henry Irving,' by Charles Hiatt; 'Sir J. Everett Millais,' by J. Lys Baldey; 'The Welsh People: Their Origin, Language, and History,' by John Rhys; 'A History of the British Army,' by the Hon. J. W. Fortescue; 'The Moorish Empire,' by Budgett Meakin; 'Highways and Byways in Normandy,' by Percy Dearmer, and 'Highways and Byways in the County of York,' by Arthur H. Norway; 'Destruction of Ancient Rome: A Sketch of the History of the Monuments,' by Rodolfo Lanciani; 'A History of Gothic Art in England,' by E. S. Prior; 'Pre-Raphaelite Painters: Their Associates and Successors,' by Percy H. Bate; Ostrogorski's 'Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties,' translated from the French by Frederick Clarke; the third volume of Palgrave's 'Dictionary of Political Economy'; 'The National Income and its Distribution,' by Prof. William Smart; and 'The Psychology of Socialism,' by Gustave Le Bon.

A. C. McClurg & Co., Chicago, will issue 'The Honey Makers,' a work for apiculturists, and others, by Miss Morley.

L. C. Page & Co., Boston, have in press 'Our National Music and its Sources,' by Louis E. Elson.

'Twenty Famous Naval Battles: Salamis to Santiago,' by Prof. E. K. Rawson, is in the press of T. Y. Crowell & Co.

The second volume of President Sharpless's "History of Quaker Government in Pennsylvania" is about to be produced by T. S. Leach & Co., Philadelphia. It will bear the title of 'The Quakers in the Revolution.'

The size and varied composition of Mr. Kipling's audience, from orchestra chairs to top gallery, is plainly put in evidence by the different editions of his writings. In addition to original magazine publication, we believe that his present arrangements contemplate three issues, in different styles and at different prices, of each of his volumes. Naturally, the "Outward Bound" edition which the Scribners publish is the last one to be reached by the successive writings; and in that handsome form we now have Part I. of 'The Day's Work.' Part II. will follow shortly, and four additional volumes are promised by the beginning of 1900. It is to possessors of the foregoing issues of the Outward Bound edition that these volumes appeal—in fact, the publishers announce that they will not be sold separately.

The recent havoc wrought by the elements in Porto Rico is a gloss upon Mr. William Dinwiddie's 'Puerto Rico: Its Conditions and Possibilities' (Harpers), a volume full of interesting photographic illustrations. The author spent two months on the island, directly after the Spanish evacuation, and shows himself a good observer, well disposed to the native inhabitants, and not given to exaggeration. He writes systematically of what he has seen and learned, and supplies at the end some trustworthy statistics of trade. There is a good index, and a good map should have accompanied it. Mr. Dinwiddie says (p. 19): "The early historians record frightful devastations by hurricanes in the months of July

and August," notably in 1825 and 1837; "but," he adds, "it has been many years since a storm of any far-reaching violence has visited Puerto Rico." His informants led him to make light of these scourges—"puny affairs as compared to our own cyclones of the broad prairies." Mr. Ober, in his 'Puerto Rico and its Resources,' is by no means of this opinion.

Under the title 'Oriental Wit and Wisdom' (London: Luzac & Co.), Dr. Budge has republished in one handy volume the 727 Laughable Stories of Bar-Hebræus, the famous Maphrian of the East, who lived in the latter half of the thirteenth century. The translation was originally issued together with the original text, and its separate publication is intended for those general readers "who for want of time and other reasons" are not able to study Syriac. As the version has already been commended by specialists, it may be looked upon as authoritative, and there will doubtless be many who will be glad to peruse this compendium of mediæval jokes in English. The tales of a flavor too coarse for English are lightly veiled in Latin. It is surprising that they are so few. The title does not fully explain the nature of the Stories, many of them being aphoristic and serious rather than jocular.

Given a rare book, *rarissimo*, say the 'Canzoni di Dante, Madrigali del detto, e Madrigali di M. Cino e di M. Girardo Novello' (Venice: Guglielmo di Monferrato, 1518), reproduce it sumptuously in its entirety under the title 'Canzoni d'Amore e Madrigali di Dante Alighieri,' etc. (Florence: The Landi Press), and limit the edition to 86 numbered copies, and you have a newly created situation dear to bibliophiles and dearer to Dantophiles with short purses.

We have received from the Buffalo Public Library a beautifully printed 'Descriptive Catalogue of the Gluck Collection of Manuscripts and Autographs' acquired by that institution through the generosity of the late James Fraser Gluck (Cornell, 1874), together with some others through different channels. The preface makes what we should judge to be a large claim for the collection as the most extensive and valuable owned by any public institution in this country in 1887; in 1897, Mr. Gluck nearly doubled its value. It is preponderantly English and American. There are sermons by Beecher, Chapin, Parker, J. F. Clarke, Thomas Starr King, Phillips Brooks, and others; MSS. of books and articles, etc. Five sources have been most prolific: the correspondence of Gen. William F. Barry, Theodore Tilton, J. R. Osgood, and Mr. Gluck himself. A portrait has been attached, where possible, to the autograph. The editing of this catalogue has been well executed by Mrs. H. L. Elmsendorf. Often the specimen is reproduced in full—with permission in the case of writers still living.

The forty-seventh annual report of the Boston Public Library, 1898-99, is a document of much value, and inspires a sense of the loss which the institution has sustained in the transfer of its librarian, Mr. Herbert Putnam, to the National Library at Washington. We have space only to remark on one item, which tells of every new work of fiction in English under consideration for purchase being read and reported upon independently by two outside volunteers and by a third in case of disagreement. These volunteers are members of a committee, all women, and from fifteen to twenty in number.

Their decision is not final, and is frequently reversed, but "these reports are of the greatest service to the administration of the Library."

The Boston Public Library report laments the inability of its own bindery to keep up with current work and at the same time make necessary repairs to precious volumes in constant request and use. The nineteenth annual report of the Peoria (Ill.) Public Library enumerates four showy works and one of a better class (the dearest costing \$9.00) which fell to pieces in from three to nine issues.

A more ardent than well-equipped admirer of Thackeray has been doing a poor service to readers of the New York *Critic* by guessing at Thackeray's contributions to *Punch*. He did so after applying to *Punch*'s biographer, Mr. M. H. Spielmann—who has a marked file of the paper and the manager's ledger, and can pronounce without appeal on every surmise—for authentic information, which Mr. Spielmann withheld, having a mind to use it himself. This ought to have been enough to put a damper on Mr. Frederick S. Dickson's zeal, but he braved the confutation in store for him, and has accordingly drawn from Mr. Spielmann the inevitable exposure and correction. He comes up smiling, however, in his rejoinder, and contrives to get in a whack at *Punch* for its travesty of Lincoln in the aberration caused by our civil war.

In the second number of the *Mayflower Descendant* (Boston, 623 Tremont Street) is begun publication of the second volume of Plymouth Colony Deeds. The Commonwealth published volume i. in 1861, when the civil war doubtless checked the enterprise. It is announced that the Massachusetts Society "is to begin the compilation of the genealogies of the *Mayflower* passengers and all of their descendants, in all male and female branches," under the direction of its Committee on Historical Research. Its stock of accumulated data is already considerable, and for a fee of two dollars the Committee will make a preliminary examination of it for the satisfaction of those who wish to perfect their lines of descent. For this the editor, Mr. George Ernest Bowman, should be addressed.

The renewed hostilities with the Yaqui Indians in Mexico lend interest to an illustrated article on them by Verona Granville in the July number of the *Land of Sunshine*, in which the recent peace is assumed to be lasting. Mr. Charles F. Holder's opening paper, describing, with curious specimens, the new Aquarium set up at Avalon Bay, Santa Catalina Island, by the Banning Co., ought to help towards the writer's desire to see established in that favorable spot a zoölogical station like that at Naples.

There has been published in England a big-type arithmetic, and if it should be generally adopted, one more source of cruelty to children will have been done away with. Much has been said lately about the injury done to children in the kindergarten by giving them work to do of too excessive fineness, but this work is at least of a pleasurable sort, and their constrained attention is in so far of a less exhausting nature. But to add to the inevitable hardship of learning disagreeable things the wholly unnecessary effort required to follow fine print, is an injury which is without excuse, and one which it is strange that educators are not more alive to.

The Association of Collegiate Alumnae has issued a forty-page pamphlet giving a detailed account, with value, conditions of application, and whatever the student would care to know, of the fellowships and scholarships open to women in this country for graduate work, and of the scholarships open to women for undergraduate work in the nineteen colleges belonging to the Association. This information has never been collected before, and will be of value not only to the many who want to choose a place for study, but to the many more who are interested in the progress of education generally. It is generally understood that opportunities for women are broadening, but it is not so clearly realized how far this process has advanced. This compilation shows that of the twenty-four colleges and universities now doing graduate work of scope enough to bring them into the Federation of Graduate Clubs, only three fail to admit women. Of those that admit women, only three fail to provide scholarships and fellowships for them; and of these three, one does not offer fellowships or scholarships either to men or to women. The universities which have the unenviable distinction of refusing to share their stores of learning with women simply because they are women are still (we take occasion to mention this curious anachronism from time to time) Clark, Princeton, and Johns Hopkins.

As usual, the competition for the Grand Prix de Rome drew many visitors to the École des Beaux-Arts during the third week in July. In painting, the subject assigned was taken from Musset's "Rolla"; "Hercule, fatigué de sa tâche éternelle, S'assit un jour, dit-on, entre un double chemin. Il vit la Volupté qui lui tendit la main: Il suivit la Vertu qui lui sembla plus belle." The paintings of the ten competitors showed little originality of conception and composition, but remarkable skill in drawing and the use of colors. Only one of the young men, Emmanuel Benner, had ventured to represent the two female figures fully draped, and at the same time to lend to Virtue a face which makes the decision of the demigod at all plausible; to nine out of ten of these young Frenchmen Virtue appears stern and forbidding. Aside from the coloring of the backgrounds, otherwise more or less conventional, the canvases might all belong to the era of the First Empire, so strongly does the classical tradition survive in the School.

The Comédie-Française has for the second time shown its generosity towards an unfaithful member. The elder Coquelin has for three or four years been playing on various European stages, and thereby forfeited the sum of 100,000 francs deposited as security with the company. The latter, after having won its suit against him, has not only given him absolute liberty as to his future movements, but has also restored to him the above sum. A similar treatment was extended, several years ago, to Sarah Bernhardt, who, by the way, is just now making in her own theatre in the Place du Châtelet improvements which cannot be completed before January.

—In his second volume of the "Writings of James Monroe" (Putnams), Mr. Hamilton covers only two years, and does not complete the record of Monroe's earlier mission to France. Most of the material was used by Monroe, in his own defence, and by

Pickering, as a state paper. The new documents consist of the letters written to Jefferson and Madison, in which the personal character of the writer is shown more plainly than in the formal dispatches to the Secretary of State. That Monroe was unfortunate in his mission is well known, and the reasons for his failure stand out in every letter. He sympathized with the French, and presented his credentials just after the death of Robespierre, when the victories of the French armies seemed to promise supremacy in Europe. Easily influenced by the welcome accorded to him, he overstepped his instructions, and took a position that displeased the Administration at home and could not be maintained in France. He secured the release of Thomas Paine, and, while boasting of it to discredit the supposed inactivity of his predecessor, Gouverneur Morris, he found he had a troublesome guest on his hands, who borrowed his money and wrote savage libels on Washington. He took upon himself to aid Spain in making peace with France, and proved only a cat-paw to that astute power. He looked upon England as the enemy of France and the United States, and, while denouncing her horrid conduct, read the treaty of Jay, which made war between the United States and Great Britain impossible. He wished to raise a loan for France, but found no support at home. Wherever he turned, he met with a want of success.

—The cause is obvious. His small, narrow mind ran to suspicions, and he saw treachery in every act that could in any way affect his influence. His confidants were keen to recognize this, and, while feeding his suspicions, drew him away from the very men who could have done so much to aid him. It was not extraordinary that he should denounce Jay to Jefferson and Madison, for Jay's negotiations on the Mississippi question under the Confederation were open to criticism. But it was unusual for one minister to denounce to the Secretary of State another, acting in a foreign state and under instructions not known to the critic; all the while asserting "my own perfect knowledge of the principles," etc. He had closed the door to any communication of the terms of the treaty from Jay, and nursed a fancied slight until it became a real grievance, laying it before Randolph and the French committees with equal freedom, and, it may be added, with equal indiscretion. In like manner he hinted charges against Consul Parish, merely because of his English birth. Too ready to listen to the suggestions of others, he ever saw his dignity wounded by acts necessary in themselves and of very remote concern to himself. He was always rushing in to defend his acts where no defence was necessary, and was "pained and surprised" when others ventured to question the expediency of his deeds or utterances. In truth, he stood isolated, and had no sources of information. His dispatches are plainly made up from the gazettes of the day, and read more like annals than intelligent accounts of the motives or policy of France. This defect becomes evident when his letters are compared with those of Morris, or of Rufus King. His enthusiasm was forced, and under it lay a crabbed and somewhat bitter ability, more adapted to conduct the affairs of a Virginia plantation than the foreign relations of a nation. The proof-reading of the volume still shows a little carelessness.

—Berkeley, of all authors, without exception, the most stimulating to a beginner in metaphysics, has hitherto appeared in four editions of his collected works. The first, of 1784, is contained in two sumptuous quartos with broad margins, open type, and paper not too brilliant. Unfortunately, like most such quartos, they are in other respects unsatisfactory, important passages being omitted at the whim of the editor. The second edition, of 1837, noticeable only as being compressed into one volume, is said to be a reprint of the first. This is not true of the third, published in 1843, in two volumes octavo, by Thomas Tegg, uniform with his editions of Hartley, Harris, Cudworth, etc. It was edited by Rev. G. N. Wright, and has some peculiarities that certainly facilitate perusal. The three Latin treatises are presented in literal English versions. The "Principles of Human Knowledge" has been subjected, obviously for the convenience of Oxford students, to a singular process. Subtitles are introduced; long sentences are broken up, so far as punctuation can accomplish it; freely scattered italics draw attention to leading conceptions; hands point to striking passages; every logically essential proposition is enclosed in brackets; while occasional footnotes call attention to comments in Reid's "Intellectual Powers." The fourth edition is the celebrated one in four volumes by Alexander Campbell Fraser (Clarendon Press, 1871), of which every page is disfigured with superfluous explanatory notes, to the reader's deep disgust. For George Berkeley knew how to give expression to his ideas as well as any man that ever lived, Alexander Campbell Fraser not excepted, nor near to being excepted. Mizar would shine out the clearer were it uncommoded by Alcor's mimicry. The volumes are edited, however, with much ability and with modern accuracy, contain Berkeley's curious early metaphysical note-book, and form altogether a highly important work.

—We are now presented with a fifth edition of the good Bishop's philosophical works in three volumes of Bohn's Libraries (New York: Macmillan); and this edition will best answer the purpose of the majority of readers. The new editor, Mr. George Sampson, has given us the complete philosophical Berkeley, and nothing but Berkeley, save for the indispensable brief histories of the several publications, and an old Biographical Essay by Arthur James Balfour, containing many fine observations—altogether quite a charming thing; not omitting very much, either. The works are, in this edition, printed in the order of their original publication, but with the author's own definitive text. In reprinting them, modern critical scrupulosity is carried to its highest pitch, quite beyond Fraser. The "Que-rist," for example, having been much changed in the second edition, is here printed twice, so as to exhibit both forms. Facsimiles of the original title-pages are given, and two portraits of the Bishop, one from the painting in the National Portrait Gallery, the other in the family group from a replica of the Yale portrait. The painter in both cases was John Smibert. The only thing we regret in this edition is that it should be confined, albeit not strictly (the Guardian papers being included), to the philosophical works. Perhaps a fourth volume will remedy that. The celebrated verses in which Berkeley predicts that America will be comparatively free from the convention-

alities of schools and of courts are, however, inserted so as to give an opportunity for the conventional British sneer by Mr. Sampson.

—Few if any English books have done so much for 'Ecclesiastes' as the first edition of Mr. Tyler's work bearing this title, which appeared in 1874. It is unnecessary to rehearse the position taken by the author of explaining Qoheleth through post-Aristotelian philosophy. In its new form (London: D. Nutt) the book is rewritten throughout and many changes have been introduced. The old three-fold division is retained of introduction, exegetical analysis, and translation with notes. The notes might have been enlarged with great advantage. But the thing which, in this edition as in the first, must most strike the Semitist, is the startling contrast between Mr. Tyler's acquaintance with classical literature and with that of the Semitic world, and his equally startling ignorance of Semitic forms and ways of thought. The only exception to this is his evident knowledge of the Mishna, but it may be safely said that the exegetical light to be gained there is darkness visible. His book thus exasperatingly resembles the brilliant little work of Plumptre. For example, he quotes approvingly Plumptre's attribution of the phrases "under the sun" and "seeing the sun" to Greek influence, being ignorant of, or ignoring, the many close Old Testament and Semitic parallels. "Let us hear the conclusion of the whole matter." In all probability the verdict of the future will lie with Zeller's cautious admission that the author of the book may have been touched by Greek culture, and not with Mr. Tyler's "theory of vigor and rigor" that he elaborately labored to dissuade from the study of Greek philosophy. Commonplaces can hardly be treated as proofs of common origin; and deep in the primitive Semitic mind there lie just those antagonisms of vanity and tempered enjoyment, of submission to a personal and omnipotent Ruler and recognition of evil in his rule, that puzzle Mr. Tyler and drive him for an explanation to contradictory Greek schools. When students of the literature of the Hebrews will study it in its place among the literatures of the Semites, such hypotheses of influence will sink back to their true level. For Mr. Tyler personally, a somewhat extended examination of Muslim thought—in literature, life, and theology—might mean much.

MORE FICTION.

Tristram Lacy: or, The Individualist. By W. H. Mallock. The Macmillan Co.

The Awkward Age. By Henry James. Harper & Brothers.

Vengeance of the Female. By Marrion Wilcox. Chicago: Herbert S. Stone & Co.

In an early chapter of Mr. Mallock's novel there is a letter written by Lord Runcorn, a Prime Minister and uncle of "Tristram Lacy, the Individualist." It is addressed to a benevolent lady of rank and fashion who has selected Lacy as a hopeful Conservative candidate for a doubtful constituency, and asked the uncle for an expression of his opinion. Real prime ministers are generally accomplished letter-writers, and Mr. Mallock has been quite clever enough to write up to a tradition of high office. The letter is, first of all, a definite answer to inquiry, and, after that, a polished bit of composition in which the class that Lacy

represents is most effectively characterized. Yet if ever there was a letter which should have been withheld from publication, or at least consigned to the seclusion of a first-print appendix, it is this fatally perfect one, signed "Runcorn." Its appearance on page 10 leaves the reader with 400 pages ahead of him and nothing new or more to be learned about the principal character. Mr. Mallock justifies Lord Runcorn's wisdom, but the process is only more tedious, not much more interesting or suggestive, than are the admirable arguments from given premises in text-books on logic.

Lacy has already experienced and discarded religious faith and poetic ideals; tried and abandoned the careers of politics and arms; loved and been jilted; known poverty and wealth, and has become, to quote his uncle, a victim of the modern malady, pessimism, whose fundamental peculiarity is not an inability to enjoy the smaller things of life, but an inability to believe that there is any true greatness in its great things. For his enjoyment of these smaller things Mr. Mallock makes sumptuous provision—family seats in England, *châteaux en Provence*, sunshine and roses, and women whose dower of wit and peerless grace is supplemented by shining raiment of infinite variety. One of these women Lacy almost wishes to marry, and another is quite determined to marry him. She is a widow of many perfections, including devout religious faith, and, by delivering Lacy to her in the last chapter, Mr. Mallock probably means to intimate that he will recover through her his lost ideals and a fresh and strong incentive to action.

The consciousness of failure in what should be the great figure of his novel may have increased the animosity with which the author regards many of the lesser people, in whose characterization he shows great energy of bad taste and bad temper. These are mostly poor people obliged to do some sort of work in order to live, and separated hopelessly from prime ministers and their nephews. Ordained by God to a degraded position, they try, at least temporarily, to forget His decree by talking about human brotherhood, equal opportunity, etc. They even gather together in a squalid way and charm each other with prophecies of the good time coming and absurd plans for hastening its arrival. In describing these wretched and ridiculous beings, Mr. Mallock drops the moderate irony, the fluent grace, the brilliant cynicism so perfectly at his command when roaming delightedly in high society. He becomes vulgarly malicious, and what may be meant for scathing satire is only cheap and stupid caricature. His most virulent attack is upon a woman who follows his own trade, and whose books have achieved immense popularity because they combine a reasonably interesting tale with discussion of serious social questions. He calls the lady Mrs. Norham, but we all know her name. Fortunately, we need neither admire her books nor agree with her opinions in order to perceive Mr. Mallock's venom and to know that it has overreached itself. The English people may have little literary judgment and no literary taste, yet it is preposterous to assert that the whole nation, including an occasional duke, has ever accepted with enthusiasm any book that could have been written by a woman with the instincts of an ambitious

scullery-maid and the style of a drunken prig. At intervals the stream of Mr. Mallock's wrath flows away from Mrs. Norham and her offensive disciples, and pours itself upon a group of rich Jews. These are abundantly endowed with unpleasant peculiarities, which might, however, be forgiven if it were not for their determination to spend their money on and with the British aristocracy. Never, if Mr. Mallock can help it, shall the Israelites be permitted to bribe with gold his own chosen God, the God to whom he pays perpetual tribute in literary frankincense and myrrh.

People who hold eccentric or even extreme views on social subjects, people who talk and write volubly without any preliminary thought, people who sacrifice mind and morals to get notice from great society, are, of course, legitimate targets for satire, and have not been spared by satirists; but these people have never been suppressed, or improved, or shamed, or even effectively ridiculed by a writer who cannot keep his temper, who appears to be working off personal prejudices and grudges, who himself shows conspicuously the weaknesses he lashes. In the earlier periods of English literature, including its greatest, the author openly sought a noble patron. As acknowledgment of gracious patronage, he prostrated himself in a preface or dedication, and then became a free man. A sincere admiration for Mr. Mallock's literary ability, and a belief in his power to write usefully and well, urge us to suggest to him the propriety of reviving that ancient custom.

A society that at the same moment affords models for fiction so far apart in aim, thought, spirit, and style as 'Tristram Lacy' and 'The Awkward Age,' is necessarily vast, complex, and tolerant. It appears to be bound together only by a few habits, chief of which is a reckless consumption of tea between the hours of five and six. Mr. James's set is rarely caught in the act of swallowing anything more substantial than tea, which may account for their thin blood and acute nervous susceptibility. For a good many years Mr. James has been disembarassing himself of the serious view, and avoiding the representation of people whose force has a physical basis sufficient to support explosive passions, violent prejudices, or moral earnestness either in the practice or the criticism of life. He has now arrived at a point of intellectual remoteness from the flesh where, he regards men and women with almost as slight reference to their bodies as if he were a philosopher contending that nothing is real except what cannot be perceived by the senses. If this attitude towards his creations were only a literary device, none could be cleverer or more discreet for an author embarking on the delineation of such a coterie as that which surrounds Mrs. Brookenham. To think of these frankly inquiring minds and untrammelled spirits united with bodies would be to picture to ourselves an uncommonly bad lot, much worse than we have any right to suppose Mr. James has ever wished to introduce. Readers will so think about them in proportion to their limitations, or inability to be quite content with fiction that is no grosser than psychology.

In his earlier works, the author's psychological analysis was often independent of

the action. He has gradually achieved a much more lively and artistic method. The minds reveal themselves or conceal themselves by talk. The Brookenham circle talks wonderfully. The one real joy and indissoluble bond is the desire "utterly and unreservedly to go to the bottom of things," the assurance that there's not a "single thing they can't take their ease about, can't intelligibly name, and comfortably challenge." The kind of things which they frequently delighted to turn inside out may be inferred from the title. By the presence of a girl of the Awkward Age, the "saloon" was broken up, or, in the words of one of its gayest habitués, lost its solidarity, became nothing more than a collection of fortuitous atoms.

As a literary performance, 'The Awkward Age' is very brilliant and fascinating. All the author's seriousness is devoted to the art of expression, the perfecting of method, form, and phrase. Yet he has his defects. The people who talk so well in the free-and-easy vernacular of the English "classes" talk too much; they have too many catch phrases, such as, "She is of a charm," "You are of a splendour," which are not English at all; frequently, in their eager chase after the real meaning of things, they become Delphic, and break into ejaculations which, however expressive to the author, leave the reader in the lurch. These defects are trifling, yet peculiarly irritating, because they show how easy it is, while polishing a manner for perfection, to get quite adrift from nature and lapse into the most artificial mannerism.

The book entitled 'Vengeance of the Female' is not so ferocious as it sounds. Lord Salisbury's famous reference to Spain and other southern European nations as "dying States" has offended the author, and her opening prefatory comment is not discreet or polite, or in a way justified by her own observation of these nations. Her assumption is that they are not exhausted and moribund, but still in a stage of irresponsible, prattling infancy, and therefore incapable of governing themselves. Having taken that position, she sustains it by the recital of a number of very amusing incidents, and by a silence about the abundant evidence of how old the Latin races are, in art for instance, and literature and experience of life, including sin. The points of Latin character which have attracted her are those that show out in domestic and social life so grotesquely different from the Saxon that they are almost always misunderstood, or, if understood, despised. The author has understood and has not despised, because, when she is not writing a preface, her own strong point is a sense of humor. To this valuable quality is added a faculty for seeing and frankly accepting the variety in human nature with no desire to harmonize or to adjust according to a conventional standard. Her appreciation of scenery and of local atmosphere is keen enough to give freshness and novelty to places that every scribbling traveller has written about, and she knows when to stop and where. It is not probable that her book will affect the judgment of statesmen, but it is quite up to convincing them that it would be well to lend a hand and keep alive nations that can afford us so much harmless mirth.

THREE BOOKS ON THE KLONDIKE:

Alaska and the Klondike. By Angelo Hellprin. D. Appleton & Co. Pp. 315.

The Trail of the Goldseekers: A Record of Travel in Prose and Verse. By Hamlin Garland. Macmillan Co. 1899.

Two Women in the Klondike: The Story of a Journey to the Gold-Fields of Alaska. By Mary E. Hitchcock. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 1899.

The power of gold has never been illustrated more vividly than by the celerity with which it has made the name Klondike known the world over. In the early months of 1897 no one but a few adventurous prospectors had heard of that region, which now adds \$10,000,000 or more a year to the world's treasure; nor did any one dream that a "San Francisco of the North" would be built at the confluence of the Klondike and Yukon Rivers in a few months, with electric lights, newspapers, bath-houses, banks, theatres, and most of the comforts of civilization. Prof. Hellprin gives an entertaining description of Dawson City and the Klondike in which so many of the conditions that once made California the land of romance have been repeated—the gathering, from all parts of the world, of men of all classes, from the professional gambler and ruffian to the college-bred gentleman or the man of fashion; their chivalrous conduct towards the few women among them, in inverse ratio to their respectability; the miners dancing in crowded halls, their pockets stuffed with gold dust; the absurd prices asked for provisions at certain times (a gallon of milk \$60, chickens at the rate of three for \$100, watermelons \$25 each, hay \$1,200 a ton, and so on). The hotel at which the author put up charged \$25 a week for board and \$35 for a room, which, however, did not include windows, for, by a strange oversight, none of those who had preceded Prof. Hellprin to Dawson City had thought of bringing window-glass—or brooms! "Not until the approach of impending winter, when it was virtually too late to supply the deficiency, was it realized that a most important article of comfort had been overlooked in the mad race to the interior." Yet in this same windowless Dawson there was a well-built saloon embellished with four mural decorations for which a local "artist of promise" had received \$800!

Dawson has already three weekly newspapers, appropriately named the *Nugget*, *Midnight Sun*, and *Dawson Miner*, two of which cost 50 cents and the other 25 cents a copy. Eastern ten-cent magazines cost 75 cents each. A single copy of a Seattle paper which brought the news of the destruction of Cervera's fleet sold for \$50; but the man who bought it rented a hall and dispensed the news at a rate which yielded him a profit of several hundred dollars. The Dawson post-office was in a most primitive condition, letters being tacked up to the sides and fronts of different buildings, petitioning for rapid delivery. Women alone could be sure of getting their letters promptly; while a man had to wait for days, they walked in with an air of superiority and were promptly waited on. The same precedence—often by days—was given them in the matter of filing claims. Obviously in the Klondike, women have all the rights they could desire—all except the poor squaws, who may be seen carrying sacks of

flour weighing fifty pounds or more over the mountain passes, side by side with the dog-teams. Mules and horses were, of course, in evidence, too, though thousands of them had perished on the trails. Prof. Heilprin had been warned against one of the passes because of the stench of decaying horse-flesh. What he saw convinced him that there must have been a dead animal for every sixty feet of distance. "The poor beasts succumbed not so much to the hardships of the trail as to lack of care, and the inhuman treatment which they received at the hands of their owners." The dogs, too, had a hard time of it. "Poor creatures! They are at times so freighted down that they seem hardly able to walk." It is true, the men did not spare themselves any more than their animals. Some, unused to toil of any kind, carried from 50 to 80 pounds, and, of course, broke down. As for the Indians, they must have changed since Hearne wrote, a century ago, that they considered a woman worth two men because she could pull so much more on their journeys. To-day, if we may believe our author, the squaw carries only fifty pounds, while the Indian himself takes double that weight.

There is much of this entertaining information and gossip in Prof. Heilprin's volume, but its most interesting part is that which describes the gold-fields. Three excellent maps make it easier to follow his remarks. In looking them over one is struck first—as in the case of the Dawson newspapers—by the local color in the names, especially of the waterways, among which there are the "Bonanza," the "Nugget," the "All Gold," and even the "Too Much Gold" creeks. The next thing that attracts attention is that nearly all the good and promising streams of the region fall off from Dome Mountain and its ridge, which is therefore "held in a respect bordering on veneration by the Klondikers," as it is believed to contain the "mother lode" or source of all the gold dust. So far, however, practically all the gold that has been obtained in the Klondike or across the American line—which is only forty miles away—is alluvial gold, from river and creek bottoms and the adjacent loose hillsides. One reason why the Klondike placers remained so long undiscovered is that superficially they present an appearance unlike that of other gold-fields. Miners from California at first indulged in sarcastic remarks about the folly of searching for gold in "moose-pastures," but it was in these pastures, under a dense overgrowth of trees, bushes, and moss, that much of the gold was found. The vale of Eldorado was one of them. The frozen ground, too, presents new problems, but otherwise the miners stick to their old-fashioned pick, shovel, gold-pan, and old-time rocker and sluice-box in preference to more modern contrivances, the result being that a third of the product goes over into the tailings and is lost for the present. Nevertheless, there are claims that have yielded up to \$200,000. The Professor thinks the wealth of the region has not been over-estimated, and that many good locations are still open. There are also opportunities for hydraulicking. In a chapter entitled "Physical History and Geology," the author treats local conditions for professional readers, and there is a final chapter on Laws regulating mining.

Tourists are already beginning to wend

their way to the Klondike, and for them there is much useful advice in the present volume. The information regarding the climate will come as a surprise to many, who are hardly prepared to read about a "wonderful land of the North," with its "mellow sunshine that is not to be found elsewhere." The author, who has visited many parts of the world, writes: "I can truthfully say that never before had it been my fortune to experience such a succession of wonderful summer days as during my stay in the region about Dawson," the temperature never rising above 82 in the shade. "During the period of free navigation," he says in another place, "there is usually little or no wind, the summer atmosphere of the North being singularly passive." He found, too, that the mosquito plague had been grossly exaggerated except for certain localities, his own experience having been almost absolutely negative. The trails, again, are not so bad as painted, while railway and steamboat have already greatly reduced them. Add to all this that the Klondike is a paradise for botanists and for lovers of berries of various sorts—many of them unknown in the East—and that the scenery on the way up includes some of the finest fjords and mountains in the world, and we have reasons enough for packing our valises for a trip 1,300 miles north from Seattle—not forgetting Prof. Heilprin's volume as a guide.

The next two works on our list, while they impart but little information regarding the Klondike, are properly a contribution to Klondike literature, and as such are acceptable for their truthful recitals of personal experiences in a journey to or towards the land. Mr. Garland, whose "Rose of Dutcher's Coolly" would hardly suggest for its author the rough-shod would-be miner of 1898, was one of the unfortunates who were lured by promises and representations into following the "Ashcroft Trail," one of the now famous "all-Canadian routes" to the gold-fields, whose termini were to most followers the dismal swamps and mountain fastnesses of the Stickeen or of the adjacent region. The horrors of this and the Edmonton route have been made too well known by newspaper report to permit for them any further advertising, and no glowing accounts of "open prairies of sweet grass," of "road-gangs" laying out easy trails, and of the "poor man's" route, made largely in the interest of transportation companies, are likely to entice prospectors further in the direction of this line of travel. Mr. Garland's account of his failure, after three months of hard travelling, to reach his destination, Lake Teslin, is pathetic to a degree, but it presents with wonderful vividness the hardships and miseries of the unknown trail. We recall few books of travel which are so graphic in their portrayal of nature; and if the aspects chosen are mainly from the side of wretchedness, rather than from that of warm sunshine, it can only be regretted that, in the region traversed by our author, the sterner aspects of nature are much more often found than those which gladden the landscape. As a book of travels, "The Trail of the Goldseekers" can make slight claim; but as a personal narrative in connection with an historic movement it will be read with much interest, even long after the movement itself has ceased.

Mrs. Hitchcock, who, as we are informed in a prefatory note by Mr. Elisha Dyer, "is

the widow of the late Commander Roswell D. Hitchcock of the United States Navy," and "descended from Lord Fitz Gerald," and who, with her travelling associate, Miss Edith Van Buren, a grand-niece of President Van Buren, enjoyed the advantage of having been "born and reared in luxury and refinement," presents an aspect of travel very different from that of Mr. Garland. A journey to Dawson by way of the lower Yukon, and out again to civilization over the White Pass, is no longer one of hardship, although at times discomforts of a rather mild type may present themselves, and consequently the narration of such a journey need not be other than one of pleasant or of pleasing facts. As such, Mrs. Hitchcock has given it to her readers, and it will be conceded that she has made a readable, even if unnecessarily bulky, book. Much the greater part of the 500 pages is given over to an uncompromisingly minute detail of happenings in tent, on the trail, and in the cabin of a steamboat—happenings not alone to man and woman, but to a "Great Dane," to a parrot, and to sundry canaries, all of which were a part of the "outfit." But from this mass of very unimportant material, agreeably served up, one can with diligent study obtain a fair insight into the condition of things which ruled at the time that the journey was undertaken, namely, the summer of 1898. Possessed of a keen intelligence, Mrs. Hitchcock was able to observe much which would readily escape the ordinary male tourist.

While the book, therefore, can hardly be considered to have been written in a serious vein, it is not without its value in its plain and homely statements, and its method shows it to be reliable. It is largely embellished by reproductions from photographs, many of which were taken by the authoress or her associate. One wonders at the subtitle, a "Journey to the Gold-fields of Alaska," seeing that the Klondike is entirely in British territory. The map which accompanies the book, prepared by "Miner" Bruce, is far from accurate or adequate, and almost wholly deficient in just that part which deals with the Klondike.

STORR'S LIFE OF QUICK.

Life and Remains of the Rev. R. H. Quick.
Edited by F. Storr. Macmillan.

Here is a book which no one who is interested in the course of education during the last thirty years can afford to neglect. Quick produced one educational classic, his "Educational Reformers," published in 1868. In this book he hit upon the device of connecting many of the most important educational truths with great persons, like Milton, Rousseau, Locke, Comenius, Pestalozzi. Thus he found opportunity for much entertaining biographical detail, and aroused interest in principles by starting with persons. Though Quick was intensely concerned with the practice as well as with the theory of teaching, yet his long and varied experience as a teacher would not be pronounced specially successful. But his failures as well as his successes were all made tributary to his thinking and to his writing, and in acuteness of observation and philosophic grasp he is excelled by few writers on education. He became, in fact, the central figure in a

small circle of men who have accomplished the most for educational reform in England. From these men came the founders and supporters of the *Journal of Education*, that mirror of English educational thought and progress; and not the least influential of this circle is Mr. Storr, Quick's biographer. It is a pleasant task to endeavor to convey, within the limits of a review, some just idea of the range and value of the contents of the book, and of the charm of the person whom it describes.

It is not unnatural to compare the book with Parkin's 'Life of Edward Thring.' Thring and Quick, most different in personality and character, had each the habit of keeping a full written record of their thoughts and experiences. The biographers of both have followed the wise plan of letting the subject speak in his own words. The consequence is, that each book gives the sympathetic reader an extraordinary sense of personal acquaintance with the man whom it describes. Thring was more intense, poetic, brilliantly endowed. To him were given powers of personal inspiration of others, a faculty of public speech, and a facility of expression which were denied to Quick. But Quick's gentleness—not without fire (his Harrow sobriquet was "Old Fireworks")—his philosophic mind, his inextinguishable love for getting at the truth of things, his power of stripping off the outside husk from any practice or theory which had nothing but custom to support it, have given to his words and opinions peculiar and lasting weight.

Robert Quick was born in 1831 and died in 1891. His father was a substantial London merchant who left him with a competence. The pecuniary independence thus secured to him allowed him greater freedom than falls to most educators. Books and travel to any extent were within his reach, and a position could be immediately laid down when results seemed unsatisfactory. His early years of study were interfered with by delicate health, the result of measles, from the effects of which he never fully recovered, though he was a large and muscular man. In 1850 he went to Trinity College, Cambridge, and took his degree with only moderate distinction in 1854. At Cambridge he devoted himself to mathematics rather than to classics and literature, for which he had more aptitude. He followed this course in consequence of a theory, which he afterwards rejected, that it was well to devote one's self, at college, to subjects for which one had little taste, rather than to those which were most congenial, because the latter would be sure to receive attention at some subsequent period! On leaving Cambridge, he took orders, apparently because more obvious opportunities for work for others seemed to offer themselves in the Christian ministry than in other callings. He had, in some way, made the acquaintance of Thomas Carlyle, and it was by his advice that he first visited Germany, spending a month in Hamburg and acquiring some facility in German conversation. This visit was followed by others, the longest one of six months in Leipzig; and he became an excellent German scholar. His familiarity with German thought and the German language led naturally to the production of 'Educational Reformers,' for, as he himself says, he soon discovered that all books of any value on the history and science of education were in German.

The student of Quick's life will be interested to know the names of the various places

at which he worked. He began at the grammar school at Lancaster, in 1858. Here he remained only six months, leaving on account of a disagreement with the head-master about Sunday work. Then followed work at Guildford, Hurst, Cranleigh, and, from 1869-1874, at Harrow. Cranleigh was what the English call a preparatory school, i. e., a school where young pupils are prepared for the large public schools. Quick was called to Harrow just after the appearance of his 'Educational Reformers.' He was himself an old Harrovian and had been a schoolmate of the head-master, H. M. Butler, and it might have seemed that he had at last found his true field of work. But he lacked that agility of mind, that facility for turning off routine work, that large supply of nerve-force which the brilliantly successful assistant-master requires. He saw, also, only too clearly, the defects of the system—the total lack of coordination of work, the absolute independence of every master of the work of every other. He could not easily endure the neglect of individual needs which is often inseparable from class teaching; the indifference, stupidity, and idleness of the mass of the boys distressed him. The consciousness, too, that he was debarred from his favorite occupations of study and writing by the endless grind of teaching and of correcting exercise-books, continually distressed him. And so, after five years of service, he left Harrow, not without appreciation, not without having left his impress, yet not having achieved a decided success.

In 1876 Quick made a singularly happy marriage. In 1879 he was appointed lecturer on education in the University of Cambridge. This position he held for four successive years. During the later years of his life, he made two private educational ventures: the first, a preparatory boys' day-school in London, from 1876 to 1881; the second, a preparatory boys' boarding-school at Guildford. His interest in the development and education of his own children, Oliver and Dora, intensified his interest in these two experiments. In 1883 he was appointed by his college to a living at Sedburgh, which he held until 1887. He then established himself at Redhill, within easy distance of London, where, without the strain of obligatory duties, he passed the last four years of his life.

One hundred and twenty-six out of the five hundred and forty-four pages of this volume are occupied by the biography of Quick, which is itself largely an autobiography. The remainder consists of extracts from the forty volumes of his journals. These note-books cover a period of more than a quarter of a century, and are the record of the thought of a lifetime. Dr. Storr says that there is scarcely a dull page in the forty volumes, and this our reading fully confirms. Here the personality of Quick is so clearly revealed that, as one reads, one almost seems to be in conversation with him. We must pass over entirely his instructive study of child-life entitled "Dora and Oliver," a careful account of the development of his two children, from their birth to their seventh and fourth year. Nor can much place be given to his thoughts on distinctly educational subjects, valuable as they are. They are, in fact, too valuable to condense, and it may be assumed that progressive teachers will read them in full. We will prefix dates to the passages quoted:

(October 17, 1877.) "Now I have settled down here quietly with Bertha [in his pri-

vate school at Bayswater, London]. I have been looking over books, etc., and the conclusion I have come to is that I have material for educational writing which I could not manipulate without an additional life or two. The danger now is lest I should be crushed by my material and never do anything. How strange it is that one is so long in learning the importance of great books, and the necessity of neglecting middling ones!"

(January 1, 1878, Marine Parade, Brighton, 6 A. M.) "When one thinks of the immensity of time and of the Christian hope that there is endless existence before us, one is perplexed that this infinity of time should take its character from a few years that seem to bear no proportion to it. One observes, however, that, in the time here, by far the greatest portion is determined by certain hours or, it may be, minutes.

"In itself a thought,
A slumbering thought is capable of years,"

says Byron. With most of us the greater part of our life seems merely wasted. Perhaps the scanty moments we give to prayer may, in importance, be the chief part of our existence."

(June 6, 1881.) "I was lately examining some old papers. They were old scribbles of mine in 1853, twenty-eight years ago. I could not help feeling vexed that they were so good. The first twenty years of life are the really most important part, after all."

(July 23, 1885.) "As I grow old, my capacity for the active business of life (never very great) seems to grow considerably less, while my desire (and, I fancy, my ability) to theorize on life seems to increase. But my time is so consumed by small things that I never get free and never feel free to think and write."

(May 15, 1886.) "Perhaps, before the end of my journey, I may be able to write some useful essays, working up the materials in these note-books. The question is whether I shall find time. Till lately, one has thought of the station as at an immeasurable distance. It does not seem so, now. Like the members of that old-fashioned sect still known by the name given them at Antioch, I don't believe in the existence of a terminus."

(June 15, 1886.) "My father used to say that one of his best points as a man of business was that he never let stock hang on hand. He would keep the decks clear and not get hampered with the old stuff."

(July 8, 1887, Redhill.) "In our present state, the machinery of life is far too extravagant of force. When one has arranged one's affairs, seen one's callers and returned their calls, read one's letters and answered them, there is hardly any time left except for meals and sleep. It seems to me a clear duty to reduce all these demands on one's time. Besides this, I think we should spend a portion of the day with some great writer. One is disinclined to rise to the thoughts of a great writer, and one gets to prefer incessant grind. How few intimacies one has with great writers! One has 'no time' to cultivate their acquaintance. But one finds plenty of time to read newspapers and periodical twaddle which does no good at all."

(October 17, 1887, Redhill.) "In indexing my notebooks, I have lately had to read a good deal of my own writing. It is extremely devoid of what M. Arnold calls charm. But one claim to attention my writing has: I write because I think."

(October 26, 1887, Redhill.) "I am always engaged in a struggle with my physical surroundings. I do not like disorder, far from it; but never having paid proper attention to keeping things in order, things are too many for me. And, after trying hard to get them straight, I fail. My difficulties arise from two sources—first, I have a sort of acquisitiveness which prevents me from throwing away what may come useful; and, secondly, I am always putting things to rights, but never take pains to keep them so."

At Redhill, Quick passed a laborious life. The day was about equally divided between his pedagogic and literary studies, and the hours devoted to his friends and correspondents. The four walls of his study were lined

with book-shelves reaching to the ceiling. His visitors had difficulty in finding a seat: chairs, arm-chairs, and sofa were strewn with books, pamphlets, and reviews. Traveling scholars of all nationalities knocked at his door, some in quest of information, others requiring an introduction or a recommendation for some post, or not rarely seeking pecuniary assistance.

Mr. Quick went to pay his friend, Prof. J. R. Seeley, a visit on February 20, 1891. He was to stay four days, and to read his friend's proofs. He stayed more than four days, and he did not read the proofs. On the second day, the two friends went out for a walk after luncheon, but had hardly left the door when Quick was stricken with apoplexy. He was brought back to the house, where he lingered sixteen days, at first in complete consciousness, which gradually diminished until the end. Prof. Seeley says of him: "I never knew a man of happier disposition and temper. He was all candor and kindness. Intercourse with him was always easy, yet never insipid. He had a singular modesty which he contrived to unite with perfect firmness of judgment. His religion he had learnt from Frederick Maurice."

Here this sketch must close. The more the reviewer has read the extracts from the note-books, the more valuable does he esteem them. Not only every teacher, but every one alive to the deepest concerns of humanity, will do well to have this book at hand, and will find in the thoughts of this noble soul cheer and inspiration.

Colonización de Filipinas: Inmigración Peninsular. Por Manuel Sastron. Manila. 1897.

It appears that, just before the Philippines passed out of the possession of Spain, a plan of colonization on an extensive scale was under consideration by the Spanish Government. It was proposed to establish agricultural colonies in the archipelago, the material for which was to be drawn from the population of the South American republics. The idea was entertained that large numbers of Spaniards who had been disappointed in their expectations of getting on in the New World, would be glad to try life over again in the Philippines, with the aid of liberal subventions from the mother country, and that in this way a step forward might be made in bringing the interior of the islands within the domain of civilization. The supporters of this novel scheme of colonization went so far, it seems, as to contemplate the translation of no fewer than 20,000 families, or 100,000 souls.

The little volume before us is an exposition of the conditions that would confront the settlers of Spanish blood ("Peninsulares") in their new home. It deals primarily with the problem of agricultural colonization, but also discusses the situation presented by the islands with respect to the importation of laborers and handicraftsmen of all kinds. The author has filled the position of civil governor in several provinces of the archipelago, has sat in the Spanish Cortes, and is a doctor of medicine. He writes from the standpoint of the Castilian who would shed the last drop of his blood for the maintenance of the integrity of the Spanish realm. He is im-

bued with the conviction that the Santa Madre Patria has been actuated by the noblest motives in her dealings with the Filipinos, who, he contends, show a smaller percentage of illiteracy than many peoples of Europe and America, and whose material progress, as measured by imports and exports, he considers most satisfactory.

Dr. Sastron's object in putting forth this memorial is to protest solemnly against the notion that the Philippines can offer a field for agricultural colonization on the part of white men. He regards the climate in practically every part of the archipelago as hopelessly fatal to such expectations. The maladies which he enumerates as the three great inevitable scourges of the interior are gastro-intestinal catarrh, chronic dysentery, and anæmia resulting from malaria. He declares emphatically, although reluctantly, that, even under the most favorable conditions of alimentation, the foreign cultivator of the soil is almost sure to succumb to one or another of these ailments or a combination of them; and as to acclimatization, he asserts that there is no such thing as becoming acclimatized in the sense that immigrants are acclimatized in Cuba, for example, in the case of those coming to the Philippines to till the soil with their own hands. Even the agricultural colonies established in recent years by the Compañía General de Tabacos de Filipinas, although composed of natives, with Spanish overseers, and generously fitted out in every respect, including safeguards as to sanitation, proved a complete failure in consequence of the unwholesome climate. In one of these settlements, located in the central part of Luzon, all the European employees, without a single exception, were prostrated by the malarial fever within a fortnight after their installation. All that Dr. Sastron is willing to admit is that there would perhaps be just a bare chance of success for agricultural colonization within prudent limits in the island of Mindanao, provided, of course, that the twenty different tribes living there in a state of anarchy ("en la mas completa desorganización politico-social") had not to be reckoned with. He quotes the following passage from one of the publications of a society in the Philippines which bears the name of Real Sociedad Económica de Amigos del Pais:

"To pretend to apply the same principles of colonization [as in the temperate zone of Australasia] in Java, Malacca, or the Philippines is sheer insanity, an unrealizable aspiration, a dragging to death of the very immigrants with whom we are seeking to accomplish the miracle of the regeneration of these colonies. Indeed, they themselves are fully aware of it, and, whether through knowledge or through instinct, they have not come nor will they ever come to these regions."

The very journals of Manila, according to the author, in spite of their interest in the increase of the Spanish population, almost unanimously shared his views.

Dr. Sastron devotes considerable space to the discussion of the possibilities of coffee culture in the archipelago, and he enters into a laborious calculation of the cost of starting a family in this line of industry, as well as of the probable outcome. He is forced to conclude that the outlook is anything but promising. It was only about 1872 that the cultivation of coffee in the Philippines began to assume large proportions. In 1887 the production reached high-water mark.

In that year, in a few districts in the province of Batangas (bordering on that of Manila), the value of the crop reached the sum of about \$2,500,000. After this, however, the yield declined rapidly, owing to some blight or malady that appears to have baffled all attempts at prevention, until at last it was reduced to a small fraction of what it had been before. A large proportion of the growers have cut down their plantations.

The kind of immigration which, in the eyes of Dr. Sastron, would profit both the islands and the immigrants, is that of miners, mechanics, and other non-agricultural hands; but even here his view of the possibilities is by no means an enthusiastic one. He is inclined to think that the mineral wealth of the Philippines may ultimately prove considerable, but his speculations are anything but glowing. He considers native labor unfitted for such industries as the mining of coal, and in more than one place he expresses the conviction that it takes three Filipinos to do the work of one European.

This handsomely printed book of 115 pages was set up by the inmates of the orphan asylum at Malabon, of which now probably not a trace remains after the havoc wrought there a few months ago. Truly, war in the Philippines is "hell."

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

- Arnold, Sir Edwin. *The Gullstan*. From the Persian. Harpers. \$1.
Birt, Archibald. *Castle Czvargas. A Romance*. Longmans, Green & Co. \$1.25.
Chapman, Prof. C. E. *Personal Rights and the Domestic Relations*. Conneaut, O.: Home Study Publishing Co.
Daniels, Prof. W. M. *The Elements of Public Finance*. Henry Holt & Co. \$1.50.
De Quincey, Thomas. *Murder as a Fine Art*. Cassell & Co. 10c.
George, H. B. *Napoleon's Invasion of Russia*. London: Unwin; New York: New Amsterdam Book Co. \$4.
Halsey, Helen N. *The Child Witness*. F. T. Neely.
Kirk, Eleanor. *The Prevention and Cure of Old Age*. Brooklyn: The Author.
Leaf, H. M. *The Internal Wiring of Buildings*. London: Constable; Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co. \$1.50.
Lodge, H. C. *The War with Spain*. Harpers. \$2.50.
Matthaei, Prof. A. *Deutsche Baukunst im Mittelalter*. Leipzig: B. G. Teubner.
Maupassant, Guy de. *Boule de Suif*. From the French. London: Heinemann.
Mendes, H. P. *Looking Ahead*. F. T. Neely.
Meras, B., and Stern, S. M. *Cinq Histolres*. Henry Holt & Co. 50c.
Milne, W. J. *Grammar School Algebra*. American Book Co.
Milne, W. J. *Plane Geometry*. American Book Co.
Moore, J. H. *Better-World Philosophy*. Chicago: Ward-Waugh Co.
Mudge, Rev. James. *Honey from Many Hives*. Eaton & Mains. \$1.
Müller, F. Max. *The Six Systems of Indian Philosophy*. Longmans, Green & Co. \$5.
Murray, J. A. H. *A New English Dictionary*. Horzontality-Hywe (Vol. V.). Oxford: Clarendon Press; New York: Henry Frowde.
Potter, Helen F. *A Man of Honor*. F. T. Neely.
Ralph, Julian. *A Prince of Georgia, and Other Tales*. Harpers. \$1.25.
Rayner, Olive P. *Rosalba. The Story of her Development*. Putnam's. \$1.
Reekie, Charles. *My Scottish Sweetheart*. F. T. Neely.
Root, F. S. *Tousled Hair*. F. T. Neely.
Rowe, Prof. S. H. *The Physical Nature of the Child*. Macmillan. \$1.
Ruge, Sophus. *Norwegen*. [Land und Leute Monographien.] Leipzig: Velhagen & Klasing; New York: Lemcke & Buechner.
Sampson, George. *The Works of George Berkeley*. Vols. I. and II. London: Bell; New York: Macmillan.
Saunders, Marshall. *Deficient Saints. A Tale of Maine*. Boston: L. C. Page & Co. \$1.50.
Schreiner, Olive. *The South African Question*. Chicago: O. H. Sergel Co.
Shakspeare, W. *Macbeth. King Henry VIII*. [National Library.] Cassell. Each 10c.
Shibley, F. W. *A Bundle of Yarns*. Providence: H. Gregory.
Smith, L. W. *Tennyson's Princess*. Boston: B. H. Sanborn & Co.
The American Monthly Review of Reviews. Vol. xix. Jan.-June, 1899. Review of Reviews Co.
The Golden Picture Book. Thomas Nelson & Sons. \$1.75.
Thwaites, R. G. *The Jesuit Relations*. Vols. XLVII. and XLVIII. Cleveland: Burrows Bros. Co.
Wetmore, Helen Cody. *Last of the Great Scouts: The Life Story of Col. William F. Cody*. Duluth Press Publishing Co., Minn.